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ABSTRACT

This guide was designed for the personal and professional development of staff trainers and manpower administrators in state and local SRS-related agencies. It is composed of three major parts: Part One - Concepts for Adult Learning - introduces basic ideas central to the andragogical process of education. Part Two - Designs and Processes for Experience - is a Five Day Residential Workshop in which ideas in Part One can be lived, tested and evaluated. Part Three: For Continuing Application - is designed to be shared with Workshop participants. Trainers may take back this section of the guide to assignments in the field to apply learnings gained from the Workshop. An annotated bibliography and selected references are given. (NF)

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A TRAINERS GUIDE TO ANDRAGOGY

ITS CONCEPTS, EXPERIENCE AND APPLICATION

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A TRAINERS GUIDE TO ANDRAGOGY

by

JOHN D. INGALLS AND JOSEPH M. ARCERI

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DATA EDUCATION, INCORPORATED
Waltham, Mass

FOREWORD

You are about to engage in what I hope will be an exciting adventure for you. You will be exploring the relatively new territory of Andragogy.

Let me tell you why I think it will be exciting--and very rewarding. When I came into the field of adult education and training over thirty years ago, the only concepts and techniques we had were those developed over the centuries for the education of children. The adult educator had very little in his bag that was unique--or even different. It was assumed that anybody could be a good trainer of adults who knew anything about teaching and was reasonably good at managing the logistics of educational programs. His role was seen as primarily that of scheduling activities.

But in the last decade things have been changing. Through both better research and the systematic analysis of experience we have been discovering that adults are different as learners from the traditional assumptions about children as learners (which, incidentally, are now being challenged, too). And a differentiated body of theory and techniques for helping adults learn has been accumulating rapidly. So now the adult educator needs to know things and be able to do things that other people don't know and can't do. His role is becoming more and more different; it is becoming professionalized.

I think that John Ingalls and Joseph Arceri have done the most comprehensive job that has been accomplished to date in bringing together the new concepts and techniques of adult education and showing how they can be applied to the training of real "pros" for the Social and Rehabilitation Service.

Have a pleasant trip.

Malcolm S. Knowles
January 1972

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The role of a staff training specialist in state and local Social Service agencies that relate directly to the Social and Rehabilitation Service of the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, calls for a variety of skills and abilities needed for organizing, planning, designing, conducting and evaluating learning experiences for adults. These skills must be applied in a variety of settings, under vastly different conditions, with groups possessing diverse cultural backgrounds. In addition to being called upon as training and education specialists, staff trainers today are being increasingly sought to provide assistance in organizational development activities requiring further skills and abilities in group processes and systems intervention. The role of staff trainer, then, is becoming more complex and more professionally demanding as we prepare to enter the last quarter of the 20th century.

The Trainer's Guide to Andragogy has been prepared in response to R.F.P.-H.E.W. SRS-71-45, which issued a statement of fundamental needs for a Syllabus and Training Guide for the Training of Trainers. The contract for developing this Guide was Awarded to Data Education Incorporated, of Waltham, Massachusetts. The Guide has been prepared under the general direction of Mr. John D. Ingalls, Vice-President of Data Education, assisted by Mr. Joseph M. Arceri. Dr. Malcolm S. Knowles of Boston University, Professor of Education and General Consultant, provided consulting assistance while the Guide was in preparation. Several meetings were held with SRS Representatives in Washington, D.C. These meetings were most valuable in clarifying the needs and purposes of the Guide and in defining general objectives for the total project.

The Guide is designed in three major parts: Part One - Andragogy: Concepts for Adult Learning, serves to introduce the basic ideas central to the andragogical process of education. It further hopes to stimulate the reader to engage in a continuing process of enquiry into several areas of fundamental importance to training, human and organizational development, and education. In addition, Chapter 7 of the Guide enters into a discussion of the relationship between education and management and the impact of new technology on both fields. Chapter 8 considers the relationship between education and therapy and sees re-education as supportive of positive mental health. While re-education is seen as significantly different from therapeutic activities for those who are afflicted with mental illness, all of us may benefit from programs of positive mental health in the same way that we benefit from programs for physical and environmental health.

Part Two of the Guide is designed to be a lived experience rather than a text to be read. Andragogy: Designs and Processes for Experience, is a Five Day Residential Workshop in which the ideas set forth in Part One can be lived, tested and evaluated by each trainer in training who participates in the Workshop. Each participant will also have the opportunity to deepen his understanding of the dynamics and processes of working effectively with others in groups and in addition will be deeply involved in designing, conducting and evaluating learning activities for other Workshop participants. In this way, the authors feel that the concepts of andragogy will be communicated andragogically and that congruency with this process for adult learning will be maintained and strengthened.

Part Three of the Guide, Andragogy: For Continuing Application, is designed to be shared with participants at the end of the Five Day Workshop. This section of the Guide has been prepared for the trainers in training to take back to their assignments in the field so that they can constantly apply and reinforce the learnings gained from the Workshop. It is anticipated that approximately six months after the initial workshop, a second workshop will be held so that the trainers in training can share their field experiences with one another and serve as resources to each other in achieving new levels of training competence.

The Trainer's Guide to Andragogy has been designed for the personal and professional development of staff trainers and manpower administrators in state and local SRS related agencies. We hope that it will be of lasting value and benefit to all of you and the clients whom you serve.

We would especially like to thank Mr. James Phipps, who served as Project Officer for the Trainer's Guide, and Mrs. Corinne Wolfe and Mr. Frank Caracciolo of the Office of Manpower Development and Training, S.R.S., in addition to many other of their associates, all of whom provided so much support and encouragement during the design and writing phases of this project.

Waltham, Massachusetts
January 1972

John D. Ingalls
Joseph M. Arceri

ANDRAGOGY

Concepts for Adult Learning

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CHAPTER 1:

AN INTRODUCTION TO ANDRAGOGY: A PROCESS FOR ADULT LEARNING

General Purpose:

The aim of this chapter is to establish a learning climate or spirit of mutual inquiry that is basic to the andragogical approach. The reader is invited to enter the process by considering some of the challenges posed to adult educators and trainers by the circumstances of life today. The reader is also invited to consider the need for a new educational process for adults arising from the challenges of the present and to review some of the differences between adult learning (Andragogy) and child learning (Pedagogy). In addition, some information will be provided on the origin and meaning of the term "Andragogy" and on the growth and development of this new field. The Chapter concludes with a brief outline of the basic elements of the andragogical process itself.

Challenges for Educators and Trainers of Adults

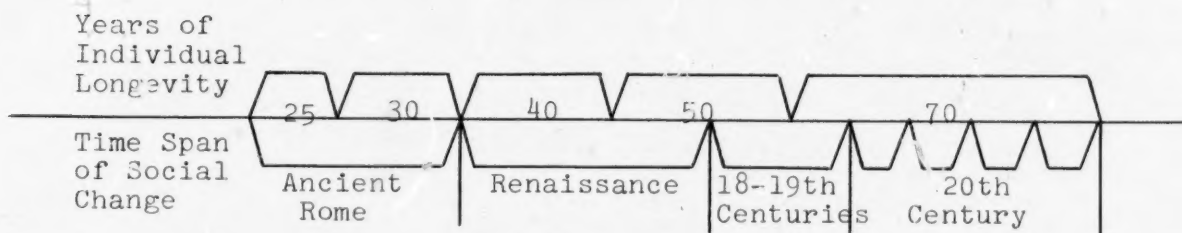
We are living in an age of rapid and accelerating change; an age of new discoveries and knowledge, new theories and methods, new problems and solutions. Alvin Toffler recently warned that this increase in the pace and complexity of life is likely to produce a state of cultural shock or paralysis brought about by an "overabundance of choice" (Toffler-1970). The evidence indicates that this warning cannot be lightly dismissed. It seems that we must find ways to improve our ability to choose quickly and accurately what we really want and need. Furthermore, we must learn how to make these kinds of decisions and carry them out in interaction with others who are affected by them. These concerns raise questions about the goals and purposes of education, human development and training. One purpose of this guide is to explore some of these questions and suggest some tentative answers.

The Changing Purpose of Education

Most educational theories have been based on the belief that the fundamental purpose of education is the transmission of the totality of human knowledge from one generation to the next. This is probably a workable assumption provided that two conditions are present: first, that the quantity of knowledge is small enough to be collectively managed by the educational system; and second, that the rate of change occurring in the culture or society is slow enough to enable the deposit of knowledge to be packaged and delivered before it changes. Both conditions have disappeared in modern times.

We are now living in a period of knowledge explosion in which the rate of cultural change (e.g., the introduction of new technology and new social mores, sudden population growth and mobility, changes in basic institutions such as marriage and the family, etc.) is so rapid that we are living through three or four different cultural periods in a life span of 70 to 80 years. The diagram below presents this picture graphically:

The Relationship of the Time Span of Social and Cultural Change to Individual Life Span



This increase in the rate and quantity of change in society leads to a question of doubt concerning the viability of the "transmittal theory" of education. Instead of trying to transmit all of what is known, perhaps our purpose could be "to stimulate in the learner a desire to engage in a lifelong process of discovering what he needs to know." If this redefinition is tentatively acceptable, we may look at two consequences that follow from it. First, education would no longer be primarily or exclusively an activity for children; and second, the responsibility for deciding what is to be taught and learned would tend to shift increasingly away from the teacher and toward the learner. Education, as a lifelong process of continuing discovery and growth, could thus satisfy our need to relate in a positive and personal way to our own changing experience.

Three additional considerations add impetus to the idea of education as a continuing activity beyond childhood.

Living Itself is Educational Experience

The ancient Chinese philosopher Confucius expressed his belief in the importance of learning from experience when he wrote:

"I hear and I forget
I see and I remember
I do and I understand"

Confucius related the acquisition of understanding and knowledge directly to living and experiencing. "I do and I understand." The process of education, looked

at in its broadest sense can be considered to be operating all the time, during all conscious human activity. It does not stop at graduation! Everything we do involves some kind of learning. Reflecting on the past, acting in the present, planning for the future, all clearly suggest the fundamental process of learning by doing. Possibly we do not look at all of life as "a learning experience" or a "learning situation". Perhaps our orientation restricts our thinking about education as that taking place only within the narrow confines of a formal classroom. But whether we wish to recognize it or not, the fact remains that we are learning all the time. Perhaps what we really need is an educational process that will help us to generate meaning and knowledge from our life situation in a way that we can utilize all of our activities as "potential for learning". In that way, even our mistakes can be valued as providing information leading to change and growth. Continuous learning from the experience of life, then, is an important focus for adults in today's world.

Education and the Resolution of Social Conflicts

It seems that social problems today are bigger and more serious than ever: crime, poverty, social and racial unrest, and drug addiction are rampant. There seems to be a greater need today than ever before for the late Dr. Kurt Lewin's prescription for resolving social conflicts through re-education (Lewin-1948). Lewin demonstrated that processes for the acquisition of normal and abnormal social behavior are fundamentally alike. He proved that inadequate visual images (incorrect stereotypes or illusions) are formed in exactly the same way as adequate visual images (reality). The importance of this clarification cannot be overestimated. If we accept the fact that our perception of reality may at any time be correct or incorrect but that it is always visualized by ourselves as correct, and if we also recognize that it is our perceptions of reality that steer or direct our actions, we can at last understand the basis of socially divergent behavior and begin to develop corrective experiences to resolve those conflicts brought about by the divergence between social illusions and reality.

Lewin called this method of dealing with divergent perceptions a process of re-education. He described re-education as a process that effects not only changes in cognitive structure (facts, concepts, beliefs, expectations) but also changes in values (attractions and aversions and feelings of acceptance and status). Re-education, to be effective, must go much deeper than the level of verbal expression. It involves a transition from old

values and ideas to new ones, together with the internalization of the new behavior, which, in turn, reinforces the new values.

Lewin specified two conditions as absolute prerequisites for successful re-education. First, individuals must become actively involved with others in discovering the inadequacies in their present situation and work together to discover paths leading to improvement; and second, there must be an implicit guarantee of freedom for each group member to accept or reject the new values or cognitive structure.

The process of re-education in pointing the way toward the resolution of social conflict becomes the second important focus for the continuing education of adults.

A Process for Learning How to Learn

Together with learning from our own experience, and working with others to bring about re-education and the resolution of social conflicts, we also need to understand and master the process of learning itself.

While we can always find someone who is an "expert" on something, for the most part, teachers are not generally available to us as they were when we were children. We are expected to be capable of performing our various social and organizational roles, and if we cannot, the consequences are often personally hurtful, as well as detrimental to the organizations for which we work. The time pressures of daily living may also make it relatively impossible for us to pursue formal educational activities as adults; hence, we need a process for learning how to learn on our own. In order to build a foundation for developing this process, it may be helpful to look at some important differences between adults and children as learners.

Andragogy vs. Pedagogy--A Choice of Perspectives

Malcolm Knowles has clarified the differences between adult and child learning in his book, "The Modern Practice of Adult Education" (Knowles-1970). Knowles does not suggest any fundamental difference between adults and children with regard to the process of internalizing knowledge, but he does point to significant differences that stem from the conditions surrounding adult and child learning and differences that emerge from varied degrees of maturation.

Knowles writes as follows:

"Most of what is known about learning has been derived from studies of learning in children and animals. Most of what is known about teaching has been derived from experience with teaching children under conditions of compulsory attendance. And most theories about the learning-teaching transaction are based on the definition of education as a process of transmitting the culture. From these theories and assumptions there has emerged the technology of "pedagogy"--a term derived from the Greek stem *paid-* (meaning "child") and *agogos* (meaning "leading"). So "pedagogy" means, specifically, the art and science of teaching children.

One problem is that somewhere in history the "children" part of the definition got lost. In many people's minds--and even in the dictionary--"pedagogy" is defined as the art and science of teaching. Period. Even in books on adult education you can find references to "the pedagogy of adult education," without any apparent discomfort over the contradiction in terms. Indeed, in my estimation, the main reason why adult education has not achieved the impact on our civilization of which it is capable is that most teachers of adults have only known how to teach adults as if they were children." (Knowles - 1970)

There are four basic concepts around which the differences between andragogy and pedagogy can be illuminated. They serve as reference points for reflecting on the different approaches of these two educational processes.

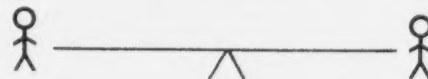
Self-Concept: The self-concept of a child is that of being a dependent person. As children move toward adulthood, they become increasingly aware of being capable of making decisions for themselves. At the same time, they experience a deep need for others to see them as being capable of self-direction. This change from a self-concept of dependency to one of autonomy is what we mean when we say a person has achieved psychological maturity or adulthood. Because of this, adults tend to resent being put into situations that violate their self-concept of maturity, such as being treated with a lack of respect, being talked down to, being judged and otherwise being treated like children. Because so many of our educational or training environments have been dominated by pedagogy, adults tend to come into educational or training programs expecting to be treated like children and prepared to allow the teacher to take responsibility for their learning. When adults discover that they are capable of self-direction in learning as they are in other activities of their lives, they often experience a remarkable increase of motivation to learn and a strong

desire to continue the learning process.

There are several implications for the creation of a self-directing adult learning environment that follow from the ideas stated above. As this Guide is developed, these implications will be treated at length. Here we can observe the first major difference between andragogy and pedagogy to exist in the relationship between teacher and learner and in the learner's concept of himself as dependent or as capable of self-direction.

Dominant vs. Dependent
Teacher Learner

Interdependent and Self-directing
Teachers and Learners



A directing relationship

A helping relationship

Experience: Adults, in the course of living, have accumulated vast quantities of experience of differing kinds. It is safe to say that "we are our experience". Our experience is what we have done; i.e., the sum total of our life's impressions and our interaction with other persons and the world. Children, on the other hand, are relatively new to experience; "experience is what happens to them" and many patterns of experience have simply not occurred frequently enough for them to have become familiar, safe, or generally predictable.

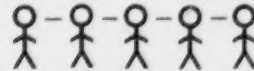
Andragogy recognizes the experience of adults as a rich resource for learning but the tradition of pedagogy is to regard the experience of children as being of little worth in the educational process. It is for this reason that the methodology of pedagogy has been up to this point largely oriented toward "one way communication techniques": lectures, assigned readings, and audio-visual presentations, while andragogy abounds with "experiential", two-way and multi-directional techniques such as group discussion, simulation, and role playing, buzz groups, brainstorming, skill practice sessions, and so on. In this way, the experiences of all adult participants can be utilized as resources for learning. All participants can be teachers and learners at the same time.

One-way communication
given by



Pedagogical Teacher to
Pedagogical Learner
Experience of the teacher
valued as the primary
resource for learning

Multi-communication
shared by



Andragogical community of
Teachers/Learners
Experience of all valued as
resources for learning

Readiness to Learn: Educators are quite familiar with the concepts "readiness to learn" and "teachable moment". It is well known that educational development occurs best through a sequencing of learning activities into developmental tasks so that the learner is presented with opportunities for learning certain topics or activities when he is "ready" to assimilate them, but not before. It is obvious for example that learning arithmetic has to precede learning trigonometry, or that learning the meaning of basic words has to precede reading history. The main task of pedagogical curriculum development lies in dealing with sequencing and interrelating of subjects and skill-building activities to meet the requirements of competency for graduation. Adults, however, have largely completed the requirements of basic education (competency in reading, writing, arithmetic and speech), unless their education has been retarded by social or economic factors. Their development tasks are increasingly related to the social roles that form their immediate concerns: working, living, raising a family, enjoying art, music, recreational activities, and so on. As an adult moves through life from early adulthood through middle-age and into later maturity, he experiences many different "teachable moments" called forth by the needs of his social situation. Two important differences between andragogy and pedagogy in this regard can be inferred from the nature of the choice of learning content and from the process used in making that choice. In pedagogy, the teacher decides both the content ("what will be learned") and assumes responsibility for the process of choosing "how and when the learning will take place". In andragogy, the grouping of learners is brought about in direct relation to the individual interests and learning needs identified by the learners; the learners decide what they need to learn based on their own perception of their needs in their social situation. The andragogue acts as a resource person to facilitate the process by forming interest groups and helping the learners diagnose their learning needs.

Learners are grouped
by grade and class



Pedagogue makes decision
for the Learners

Learners group themselves
according to interests and
needs



Andragogue helps adults to
decide for themselves

Time Perspective and Orientation to Learning: We are used to thinking of education in terms of "preparation for the future" rather than "doing in the present". When we were children, we were involved in the educational process of storing up information for use on some far-off day, following graduation. Our teachers presented us with information neatly packaged into subjects that we could unwrap as needed on our journey through life and graduation seemed to be a sort of ceremonial "rite of passage" from the learning world into the "doing world". There was a strong implication that the learning world was left behind. But I think I agree with Confucius that all living is learning ("I do and I understand"). I believe that learning is not only preparation for living, but the very essence of living itself. When I am actively thinking, doing, reflecting on my experience, discussing it with others, practicing and learning new skills for improvement and using them, I am using all of my abilities as a human person.

In andragogical education, then, learning is "problem centered" rather than "subject centered". Andragogy is a process for problem finding and problem solving in the present; it is the discovery of an improvable situation, a desired goal, a corrective experience, or a developmental possibility in relation to the reality of the present situation. To discover "where we are now" and "where we want to go" is the heart of the andragogical approach and to education. When coupled with the process of evaluation, "where have we been" and "where are we now", we can achieve a positive orientation to action within a realistic framework of possibility.

Curator of the Knowledge
of the past



Grouping and classifying
information into subjects
to be studied now for use
"someday"

Problem finding/problem
solving teams



Working on today's problem
today

An Emerging Technology for Adult Learning

How did andragogy begin? Where did the name come from? Has anyone heard of it outside the United States? These questions are examples of those frequently asked by people first exposed to andragogical education or training.

The name Andragogy (or Andragology) derives from a combination of the classical Greek noun "agoge" (the activity of leading) with the stem "andr" (adult). Andragogy is thus defined as the art and science of leading adult learning (or helping adults learn). The word was first used by a German grammar school teacher, Alexander Kapp, in 1833, to describe the education theory of the Greek philosopher, Plato. Kapp distinguished Andragogy from Social Pedagogy (basic remedial education for disadvantaged or handicapped adults) referring to Andragogy as the normal and natural process of continuing education for adults.

The development of Andragogy seems to have been much more rapid in Europe than in the United States. In the Netherlands, there are at present seven major universities granting degrees with Andragogy as the major specialization. A similar development has occurred in Germany, Poland, Hungary, and in particular, Yugoslavia, where several universities are offering programs leading to the doctorate. Andragogy is becoming known in France, England, and in South America. Professor Malcolm Knowles of Boston University introduced Andragogy to the United States and is internationally recognized for his creative developmental work in this new field (Van Enckevort-1971).

While Andragogy has been emerging as a new educational process for adults, additional related discoveries have been and are being made in the fields of management science and organizational development and also in the fields of counseling, psychotherapy and social psychology. (See Chapters 7 and 8 of this Guide). Andragogy is the unifying educational process that can help adults discover and use the findings of these related fields in social settings and educational situations to stimulate the growth and health of individuals, organizations, and communities.

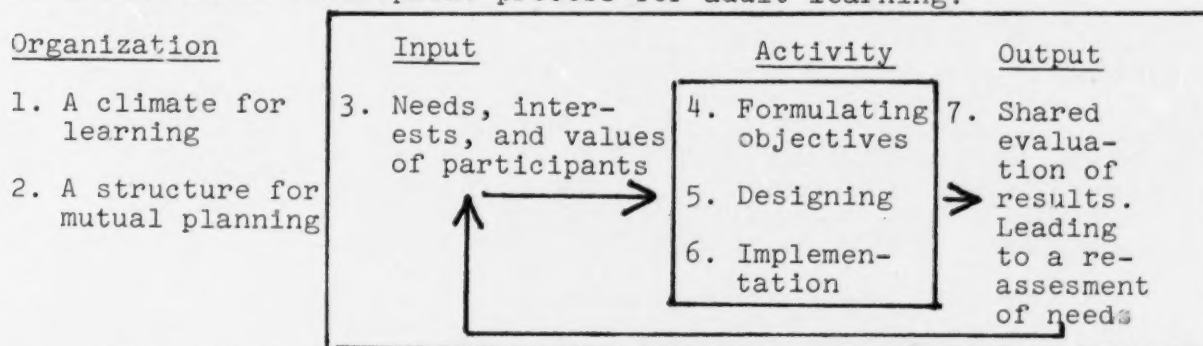
In fact, the European andragogues consider "social case work, counselling, resocialization processes, social group work, adult education, personnel management, community organization, and community development, etc." (Van Enckevort-1971) to all be parts of applied andragogy. Andragogy is seen in this sense to be the "process" through which the differing "content" of the above mentioned fields or activities can be learned and applied.

The Andragogical Process

The development, organization, and administration of programs in applied andragogy involve continuous circular application of the following seven steps. These seven steps are:

- * Setting a climate for learning
- * Establishing a structure for mutual planning
- * Assessing interests, needs and values
- * Formulating objectives
- * Designing learning activities
- * Implementing learning activities
- * Evaluating results (reassessing needs, interests and values)

The seven step process of andragogy can be graphically described in terms compatible with general systems theory. Andragogy may be viewed as a human systems model or as a "feedback loop". It is in this sense that it can be considered to be a continuous development process for adult learning.



The primary function of the teacher (or trainer) in an androgogical activity is that of managing or facilitating the andragogical process itself, rather than managing the "content" of the learning as in traditional pedagogy. The content of andragogical learning can thus be highly variable, based on the resources and interests of the learners and the needs of the institutions and organizations of which they are a part.

Andragogy meets the conditions for continuing educational activity for adults:

- * It is a way to learn directly from our experience
- * It is a process of re-education that can reduce social conflicts through interpersonal activity in learning groups
- * It is a process of self-learning from which we can continuously develop our own learning ability

In the next chapter we will explore in detail the organizational issues of climate setting and building a structure for mutual planning.

CHAPTER 2:

CREATING AN ENVIRONMENT FOR ADULT LEARNING

General Purpose:

This chapter has been designed to introduce the first two steps of the andragogical process:

- * Setting a climate for learning
- * Establishing a structure for mutual planning

The chapter will explore the importance of the learning environment and will discuss "learning climate" from three perspectives: the physical (or biological), the human (or interpersonal), and the organizational (or interactive).

The section on establishing a structure for mutual planning is an outgrowth of the concept of climate setting and a shift from a focus on the individual to a concern for developing team effectiveness and creating a climate for learning within working or training groups. This chapter serves as an introduction to a more complete development in Chapter 7 on Education and Management, where these factors will be viewed from the standpoint of building organizational support systems for training programs. The chapter continues with some practical suggestions about ways in which to create a climate for learning and concludes with a handy climate setting check list.

Setting a Climate for Learning

What is a learning environment? If we agree with the idea that all human experience can convey learning ("I do and I understand"), then we may conclude that all environments in which humans live and interact are potential environments for learning. Certain environmental factors seem, however, to either facilitate or be disruptive of adult learning activities. All kinds of messages are constantly being communicated from the physical, human and organizational environments in which we live and work, and most of us have become quite adept at picking up and decoding messages that may be expressed verbally or non-verbally. A name that has been used to describe this web or network of messages and meanings is "climate". The term began to be used, I imagine, as an attempt to describe what it feels like to be and work in a particular group or organization. Organizational climates can vary considerably from being warm, informal and stimulating to being stuffy, formal and dull. While it is difficult to pick up and identify all of the elements or messages that contribute to how we feel about the climate in a particular environment, we cannot deny our feelings; they are real to us and they affect

our behavior. It is possible to assess organization climate when the subjective feelings of a large or significant percentage of an organization's population are gathered and the data is recorded and analyzed systematically.

It is fairly obvious that learning can be stimulated or blocked by poor climate. Physical discomfort, frustration, anxiety, apathy and indifference all have a negative effect on the learning process while excitement, joy, enthusiasm, humor and comfort, etc., all seem to facilitate it.

The key issue for climate setting, in my opinion, lies in recognizing the value of persons in an organization. If adults are not recognized as self-directing and autonomous persons and if they are not allowed to function as adults, the resultant negative behaviors will most likely have a harmful affect on the learning or working climate.

The following sections discuss some ways in which adult learning environments can be developed:

The Physical Surroundings - I think the most important thing that can be said about the physical surroundings for adult learning activities is that they be comfortable. All of us have physical limitations placed on us by nature. If the chair is too hard, if the room is too hot, if I can't hear well enough, I am not likely to be fully attentive and involved in whatever learning activity is taking place.

In addition to the physical surroundings of the training session itself, there are two related physical concerns that are worthy of mention. One involves the movement of trainees or learners from their homes to the meeting site. If directions are not clear and accurate, if parking is very difficult, or if the traveling is hazardous, the resulting frustrations may have to be dealt with before learning can begin. The other concern has to do with helping participants to get acquainted easily. Name tags or name cards help. If they are large enough, the trainer or meeting leader can identify people by name, which is certainly more desirable than the impersonal feeling that develops when most everyone remains anonymous.

Human and Interpersonal Relations - An important concern in this area of climate setting is to create as comfortable a psychological environment as possible. When people come to evening learning activities, they bring with them all of the tensions and anxieties of their day's experience. It is necessary to help people to "situate themselves" or get into the mood for a meeting. Setting climate for a

morning training activity is different and in many ways easier than climate setting for night meetings; people generally seem more relaxed at this time. But whether it is morning or evening, the psychological climate for learning must be developed in relation to how people are feeling. Oftentimes, the prevailing mood can be sensed and acted upon spontaneously.

Later chapters will go into detail on some of the deeper psychological issues of interpersonal and intergroup relations. Here we may simply recognize that most people bring to meetings with other adults some feelings of anxiety and uncertainty; they need time to become acquainted with those who are sitting near them and to have some experiences of accepting others and being accepted by them. These are the reasons why "warm up" activities, which often take the form of short games or fun experiences, are helpful in setting climate; they tend to create laughter and dispel anxiety; they tend to assist people toward forming a cooperative frame of mind.

Organizational Setting - Organizational climate can be looked at from two perspectives for the purposes of this section. First, from the perspective of the organization of any particular adult learning or training activity, and, second, in a more general sense, from the perspective of the overall organizational, institutional, community setting within whose jurisdiction the training activity is taking place. Let us consider the more limited aspect first.

If it is true that climate is a subjective awareness of the total situation, organizational climate is communicated by every piece of publicity or advertising about a training or education activity. Memos, brochures, posters, bulletins, programs, agendas, and so on create impressions leading to the development of personal expectations. If your advertising stimulates interest and curiosity and invites active participation by all in a warm and friendly manner, climate "messages" are already being communicated to your organization. Obviously, it is then necessary to live up to those expectations by conducting meetings that will reinforce and add to those feelings.

A most important aspect of climate setting is the behavior of the leader or trainer. If he is enthusiastic, cheerful, and informal and if he behaves in an open and democratic way, he will automatically encourage others to behave in the same way and an adult environment will most likely ensue. In addition, every meeting or training session must have a design or a plan and it is facilitative of climate setting to involve the participants in choosing alternatives or options concerning the plan you present.

For example, you may offer three or four different interest areas for sub-group work or you may involve the whole learning community in designing their own training activity from start to finish.

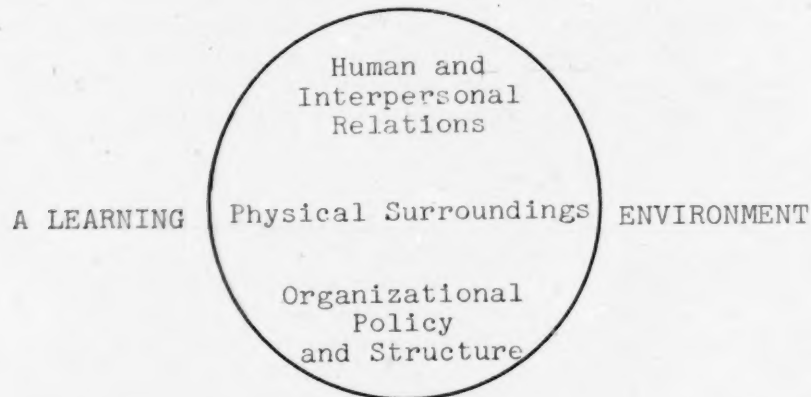
Looking at organizational climate in the larger sense, one might ask how it can affect particular learning activities. A fairly common example from industrial organizations may be illuminating. If an organization publicly expresses the value of "promotion from within" and yet most upper level or "key" positions are filled by hiring from outside the company *on the grounds that there is no one presently qualified within the organization*, the climate will signal an incongruity and most people in the middle management of that organization will not believe in the policy, despite the management statement to the contrary. This type of mixed message will probably have a negative effect on the level of motivation for learning and growing in that organization and there are numerous other confusing signals of this type occurring in organizations with frequency. Chapter 7 will go into detail on building organizational climate to support training activities and clarify training purposes.

Establishing a Structure for Mutual Planning

There are many dilemmas involved in creating a structure for mutual planning. For example, "Will I, as director of this department, be able to lead it as I see fit or will I abdicate my leadership and have my people lead me?", or, "I would like to involve people in planning, but we just sit around wasting time.", or "Committees don't work.", or, "People need strong direction and control.", and so on and on it goes. Rather than attributing the failure of people to work well and collaboratively in groups to personality factors or to refusal by the leader to relinquish power and control, for example, I prefer to simply say that most people fail to work well in groups because they never really learned how. When we consider the educational environment consisting of individualized desks in rows and files, of children competing with each other for the teacher's approval (such as grades or other rewards), of competitive games in the school yard, of sibling rivalry at home, and of competitive striving later on in the world of work, we see little to provide general experience in building collaborative skills. This is not to say that competition is bad; far from it, but there needs to be a balance, I believe, between the two. Our society today shows signs of unbalance due to the underdevelopment of collaborative and helping behaviors and the overdevelopment of competitive and aggressive skills. When planners of adult learning activities involve their participants in the planning process, the resultant richness and vitality of the program demonstrates the advisability of this approach. Part Two of this Guide will provide specific examples of developing structures for mutual planning and of means for resolving some of the more common leadership and authority dilemmas.

Some Climate Setting Methods

Climate setting consists of the integration of three perspectives of the learning environment: the physical, the human and the organizational.



Human and Interpersonal Relations

Methods of climate setting with any group are designed to overcome initial anxiety and social distance. One example of a warm-up exercise that has been used effectively is to pick up a familiar object such as a blackboard eraser, commenting on how it is much the same now as it was when you went to school. Ask the groups of people or participants to take fifteen minutes or so in coming up with all the ideas they can think of to redesign the eraser to improve its effectiveness. You will probably be amazed at the number of creative ideas that are generated in a short time. A friendly competition can be stimulated between groups by comparing the number of new ideas from each group. Once people have experienced sharing creative ideas in a small group, it is easier for them to work on more serious tasks in a similar way.

Warm up exercises can be developed around preparing name tags: Provide multicolored paper and magic markers. Have people design "creative" name tags by combining colors and shapes. It is helpful to provide coffee during this time and allow for socializing to occur naturally.

Another method is to have people divide into pairs to tell each other why they came to the meeting and what they hope to gain from it. Each pair then finds another pair to make quartets and they repeat the process until groups of eight are formed. These groups of eight can then become table groups for the planned learning activity of the evening. There are dozens of additional examples. Perhaps you may enjoy making up some of your own.

It is best not to take more than twenty to twenty-five minutes for warm-up exercises and less if the meeting is shorter than two hours. You will probably find time spent in this manner to be richly rewarding when it results in a training community that is relaxed and comfortable.

No matter how hard you work to create an enjoyable learning climate, all your efforts can be lost if you don't end your meetings on time. One helpful technique is to have a large poster that everyone can see that serves as a public "time keeper". An example would look something like this:

MEETING AGENDA	
7:30 P.M.	Meeting begins
7:30-8:00	Informal session-coffee, etc.
8:00-8:20	Introductory exercise
8:20-9:00	Group discussions
9:00-9:30	Group reports
9:30-10:00	General session
10:00	Closing

Topics can be listed in a very general way. What is important is that people get a sense of whether or not the meeting is on schedule and can share the responsibility for ending on time. If it is apparent that the meeting will run overtime, you can test for options such as: "We can either continue for an additional half-hour, or possibly agree to meet again next week."

Often, it is valuable to plan a closing exercise that summarizes the work of the session and provides a basis for making decisions on the need for and time of another meeting.

Physical Surroundings

The keys to climate setting in the physical area are:

1. Comfort
2. Variety
3. Mobility
4. Sensory Accomodation

You may want to utilize the whole meeting room for climate setting by using posters or displays and by encouraging people to move around and change positions during the session. Plan for alternating periods of rest and work and periods of talk and silence, etc. It is also important to check the physical facilities carefully before a meeting to determine if lighting, acoustics, noise control, ventilation and temperature are adequate and to make sure that the physical facilities are adequate for comfort: coat racks, rest rooms, ash trays, parking, etc. If you use equipment (audio-visual aids), it is very satisfying when it works well and when "the operator knows how to operate.". While these are all common sense items, overlooking them implies a lack of caring that can have a negative effect on the climate for learning.

Organizational Policy and Structure

It is important to be working within a clearly stated policy framework. Failure to do so can lead to embarrassing questions being raised in public if your program seems to violate organizational norms in some way or other. Needless to say, these kinds of questions are climate destroyers. When the purpose of your training activity is clearly spelled out, advertised in advance, and restated at the beginning of the meeting, this kind of disruption can be avoided.

Formation of a planning and design committee is also important and worthwhile. Committees can subdivide to perform necessary tasks such as: registration, preparing refreshments, setting up physical facilities, preparing advertising and posters, etc. Planning group members can also function as discussion or group leaders when the format requires.

The question of budgeting raises another vital issue. Interesting programs cost money. Learning aids, posters, advertising, and so on are all expensive. If you make sure that you have a sufficient budget to be able to maintain a consistency of design and application throughout your entire program, you will live up to expectations. A program that starts off with a lot of colorful activities and winds up as a lecture series because of a lack of funds is not very impressive or satisfactory.

Another elemental part of planning a learning activity is to foster an inquiry into the nature of the organization you and your committee are serving and that organization's needs. How does the organization function? How does it get its work done? Who grants permission for various activities? Is the education plan you are designing consistent with the goals of the organization and seen to be consistent by those in authority? Is the planning group for your educational activity representative and inclusive of different (and possibly competing) interest groups and/or departments?

One aspect of planning an adult education activity in an organizational setting deserves some special attention. The planning activity seems to work best (as has been suggested before) if it is conducted as a miniature process model of the activity being planned. That is to say, when the planning activity itself follows the same process of climate setting, mutual planning, need diagnosis, formulating objectives, designing and implementing activities and evaluation as mentioned in Chapter One, planning seems to move faster and more smoothly. Prior to the "planning meeting", it is also most often desirable to plan for the "planning meeting" by questioning the need for the inclusion of various persons as planners and for deciding what is to be planned. During this step, the same andragogical process can be followed. Thus, it is possible to telescope this process backwards as far as is practically necessary to ensure the inclusion and integration of all individual and organizational needs and requirements.

A word must be said about the relative degree of formality in the organizational setting. Andragogy seems to work best in an informal setting. If the informality of the education program is widely variant from known organizational norms, an incongruity is likely to develop that inhibits educational effectiveness and organizational acceptance. This issue can be often resolved by recognizing the realities of the situation and working with them to foster an appreciation for and acceptance of more informality on a gradual basis.

A Climate Setting Check List

<u>Physical Surroundings</u>	<u>Human and Interpersonal Relations</u>	<u>Organizational</u>
Space	Welcoming	Policy
Lighting	Comfort Setting	Structure
Acoustics/Outside	Informality	Clientel
Noise	Warm-up Exercise	Policy & Structure
Decor	Democratic Leadership	Committee
Temperature	Interpersonal Relations	Meeting Announcements
Ventilation	Handling VIP's	Informational
Seating: Comfort/	Mutual Planning	Literature
Position	Assessing Needs	Program Theme
Seating arrangements/	Formulating Objectives	Advertising
Grouping/Mobility/	Designing and Implementing Activities	Posters, Displays
Rest/Change	Evaluating	Exhibits
Refreshments	Closing Exercise	Budget and
Writing Materials	Close On Time (Option to Stay)	Finance
Ash Trays		Publish Agenda
Rest Rooms		and Closing Time
Audio-Visual Aids		Frequency of
Coat Racks		Scheduling Meetings
Parking		
Traffic Directions		
Name Tags or Cards		
Records/Addresses, etc.		

The above lists include many of the more important items of consideration in developing a climate conducive to adult learning. The list is by no means exhaustive nor do we believe it to be complete (you will probably be able to add several additional items from your own experience.). You might wish to use a list like this much like an airline pilot does before "takeoff". To lift your "wheels" before you leave the "runway" can be very embarrassing. Many programs have experienced "crash landings" because of simple oversights that could have been avoided.

CHAPTER 3:

PROBLEM FINDING - THE IDENTIFICATION OF INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP NEEDS

General Purpose:

The purpose of this chapter is to conduct an enquiry into the process of problem finding which is seen as the location and identification of the needs of individuals and groups. While the primary setting for this enquiry is one of education and training, the process is considered to be generally applicable to almost any situation where individuals are involved in organized activities with others.

The chapter opens with a discussion of the relationship between basic needs, interests and values and shows how all three of these factors can be broadly defined as educational needs. Some methods for assessing needs are identified in the next section in which need assessment is presented as an essential prerequisite to formulating training objectives and designing learning activities for adults.

The competency model is considered next as application of need assessment to individual learning and as a motivational aid to personal development. The chapter closes with an analysis of the basic processes of group dynamics which present a special set of individual and group needs arising from interpersonal activity.

Needs, Interests and Values and Their Relation to Learning

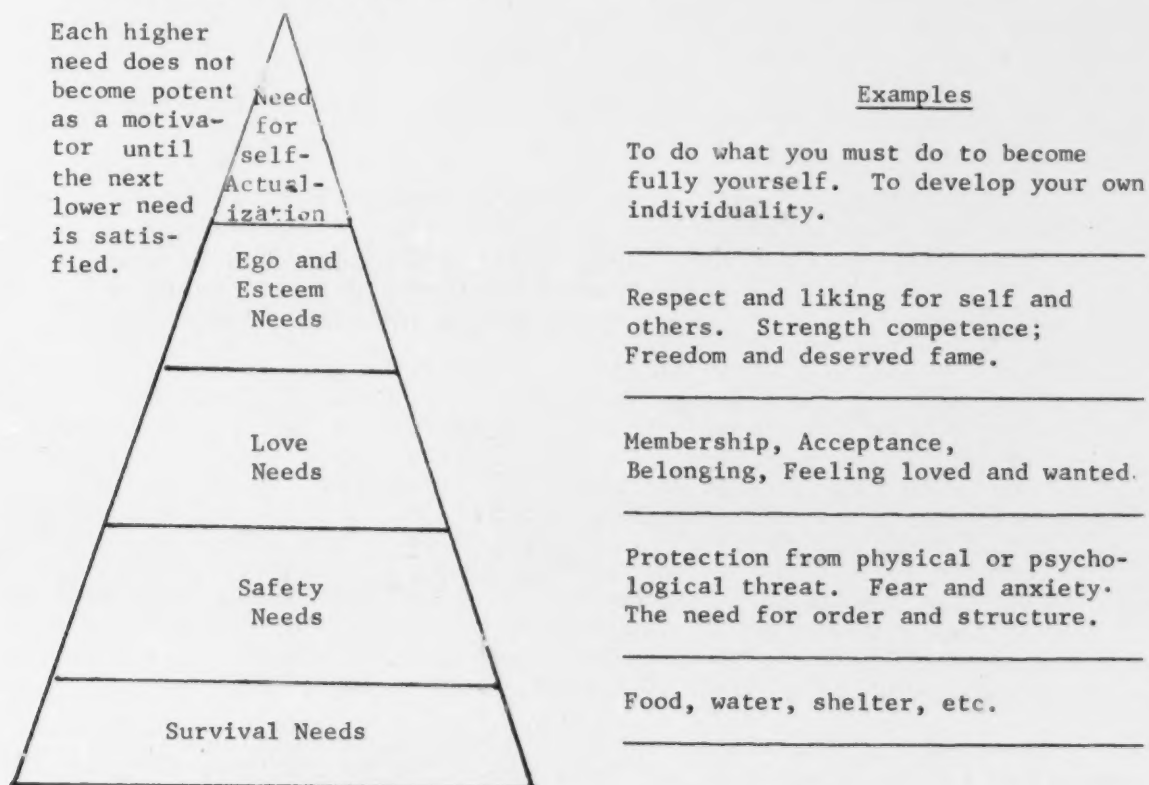
In our haste to respond to the pressure of events and in our urgency to find solutions to our problems, it is easy to lose sight of the fact that it is more efficient to spend the time required to "find the question" before we seek an answer, and to thoroughly explore and "define the problem" before deciding on a solution.

Possibly one reason for rushing ahead can be found if we recognize that the pressure of *our own need* to find an answer or a solution may cause us to temporarily lose sight of the needs of others whose participation we are dependent on in helping us reach our goal. We can offset this momentary and periodic blindness if we "build in" a need assessment or problem finding process when we are involved in getting tasks accomplished with others.

Basic Needs - The late Abraham H. Maslow has provided us with a most helpful series of insights into the dynamics of

human motivation. He described motivation and its resultant behavior as flowing from internal responses to the basic needs of the human organism. This view was first presented by Kurt Goldstein (1940) who's research proved that man was not motivated primarily by responses to external stimuli nor by conditioned reflexes, but rather by the internal potentialities of his own being and the need for these potentialities to be actualized by the self. It was Goldstein who developed the concept of self-actualization as man's fundamental and most important need.

Maslow recognized that there were a variety of basic human needs and that they could be arranged in a hierarchy of relative prepotency. This means that human needs could be visualized as stacked in layers and that the higher needs were only potentially present as motivators and could not be actualized unless the need on the next level below was satisfied. The diagram may be helpful in clarifying this point.



While all men strive toward self-actualization, this striving can be temporarily blocked by a lack of satisfaction of the lower level needs. This theory explains why man can actively pursue paths contrary to his own best interest. For example, "stealing" to satisfy a safety or survival need can result in "imprisonment", where the consequent loss of freedom becomes a serious impediment to achieving satisfaction of love, ego and

self-actualization needs. Another example can be found in cases where people so need the love and acceptance of others that they avoid the necessary constructive conflict required to build healthy interdependent relationships. This type of situation is frequently encountered in family counselling, where young adults experience real difficulty in "breaking away" from dependency on parents and where parents find "letting go" a real problem in their relationship with maturing children.

Maslow's need hierarchy contains two important implications concerning the education or training of adults. First, because learning has been considered in the past to be primarily a process of "transmitting" knowledge from teacher to student, the primary responsibility for the learning transaction has been placed on the teacher. "If the student hasn't learned, the teacher hasn't taught." is an often stated axiom of those who believe learning to be primarily an "external process". However, if all motivation is a result of internal need meeting and goal striving as Maslow indicates, then learning is internally motivated and the responsibility for learning lies within the learner.

Dr. Malcolm Knowles makes the following comment related to this issue:

"The important implication for adult-education practice of the fact that learning is an internal process is that those methods and techniques which involve the individual most deeply in self-directed inquiry will produce the greatest learning. This principle of ego-involvement lies at the heart of the adult educator's art. In fact, the main thrust of modern adult-educational technology is in the direction of inventing techniques for involving adults in ever-deeper processes of self-diagnosis of their own needs for continued learning, in formulating their own objectives for learning, in sharing responsibility for designing and carrying out their learning activities, and in evaluating their progress toward their objectives. The truly artistic teacher of adults perceives the locus of responsibility for learning to be in the learner; he conscientiously suppresses his own compulsion to teach what he knows his students ought to learn in favor of helping his students learn for themselves what they want to learn." (Knowles, 1970, p. 51)

Secondly, the level of need satisfaction plays an important part in determining what learners will be motivated to learn. For example, a person who is experiencing a high level of psychological anxiety is likely to be motivated to want to learn anything that will help him resolve his problems "as he perceives them", but he will not be motivated toward developing his higher potentialities until he finds a "safer" environment.

While we all move up and down the Maslow motivation hierarchy depending on the circumstances of our present situation, we

tend to stabilize at a level of basic satisfaction. That is to say, if our lower level and intermediate needs are quite fully satisfied, we tend to be motivated more toward satisfaction of the higher needs. Those people who have achieved consistent satisfaction of all lower needs can be "freed" from them to the point of being fully self-actualizing persons. The ultimate goal of education and training may well be to find ways of helping all persons to achieve self-actualization.

Interests - One way to look at the difference between interests and needs is to consider needs as basic wants, desires, tendencies or inclinations while interests can be expressed more as liking or preference in the sense of stimulation, curiosity, or attracted attention. Needs are seen as more fundamental to human motivation; interests tend to be more on the surface or more peripheral. Nevertheless, they are closely related and often operate in a simultaneous manner. Satisfying "esteem needs" can be correlated, for example, with an interest in becoming a good musician or dancer. Irving Lorge has developed a helpful set of categories that can be useful in discovering the interests that different people may have; Lorge calls his categories "Incentives for Adult Learning." (Lorge, 1947)

People Want to Gain

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Health | 8. Comfort |
| 2. Time | 9. Leisure |
| 3. Money | 10. Pride of accomplishment |
| 4. Popularity | 11. Advancement; business, social |
| 5. Improved appearance | 12. Increased enjoyment |
| 6. Security in old age | 13. Self-confidence |
| 7. Praise from others | 14. Personal prestige |

They Want to Be

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Good parents | 6. Influential over others |
| 2. Social, hospitable | 7. Gregarious |
| 3. Up to date | 8. Efficient |
| 4. Creative | 9. "First" in things |
| 5. Proud of their possessions | 10. Recognized as authorities |

They Want to Do

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Express their personalities | 5. Appreciate beauty |
| 2. Resist domination by others | 6. Acquire or collect things |
| 3. Satisfy their curiosity | 7. Win others' affection |
| 4. Emulate the admirable | 8. Improve themselves generally |

They Want to Save

- | | |
|---------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Time | 5. Worry |
| 2. Money | 6. Doubts |
| 3. Work | 7. Risks |
| 4. Discomfort | 8. Personal embarrassment |

It can be shown that interests vary widely according to individual differences and particularly with regard to social differences such as: race, religion, socio-economic level, educational achievement, culture and occupation. Rather than assuming what individual or group interests are, it may be more effective to develop a method for obtaining this information prior to, or at the beginning of, any adult education or training activity.

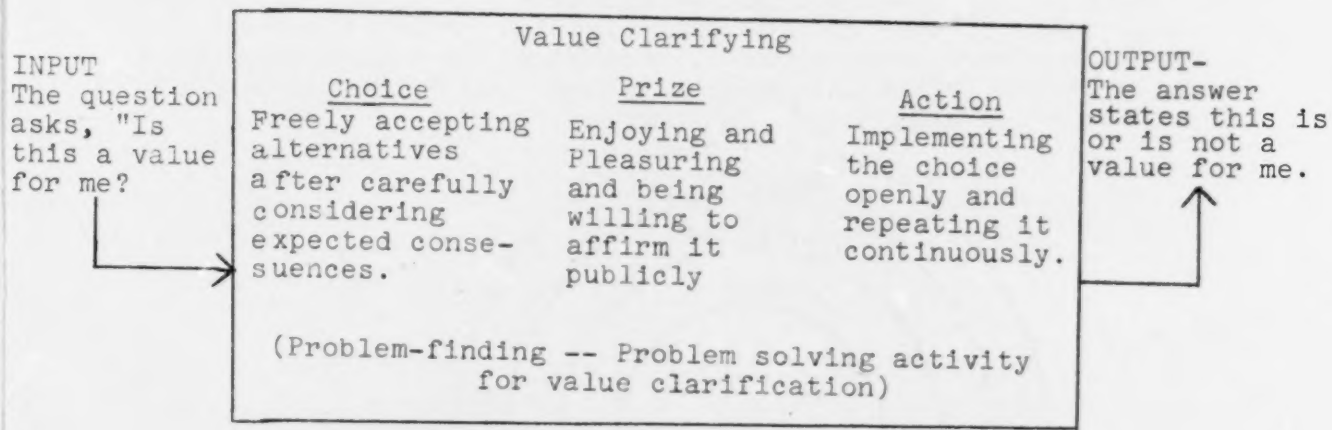
Values - If needs are basic wants, and interests are particular preferences, values indicate commitment to patterns of choice. When we speak of values, it is perhaps more helpful to look at the ways in which people choose values--"the process of valuing"--rather than trying to list a series of different values that persons may or may not have. Rath, Harmin and Simon (Rath, et al. 1966) have developed seven criteria for clarifying values. They point out that if a person wishes to be really certain if he values something, he can apply these value criteria as a reality test. If any one criterion is missing, it can be said that the item is not truly valued.

The Seven Valuing Criteria*

1. "Choosing freely. If something is in fact to guide one's life whether or not authority is watching, it must be a result of free choice. If there is coercion, the result is not likely to stay with one for long, especially when out of the range of the source of that coercion."
2. "Choosing from among alternatives. This definition of values is concerned with things that are chosen by the individual and, obviously, there can be no choice if there are no alternatives from which to choose....Only when a choice is possible, when there is more than one alternative from which to choose, do we say a value can result."
3. "Choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative. Only when the consequences of each of the alternatives are clearly understood can one make intelligent choices. A value can emerge only with thoughtful consideration of the range of the alternatives and consequences in a choice."
4. "Prizing and cherishing. When we value something, it has a positive tone. We prize it, cherish it, esteem it, respect it, hold it dear."
5. "Affirming. When we have chosen something freely, after consideration of the alternatives, and when we are proud of our choice, glad to be associated with it, we are likely to affirm that choice when asked about it. We are willing to publicly affirm our values."

6. "Acting upon choices. Where we have a value, it shows up in aspects of our living...In short, for a value to be present, life itself must be affected. Nothing can be a value that does not, in fact, give direction to actual living. The person who talks about something but never does anything about it is dealing with something other than a value."
7. "Repeating. Where something reaches the stage of a value, it is very likely to reappear on a number of occasions in the life of the person who holds it. ... Values tend to have a persistency, tend to make a pattern in a life."

A systems diagram of value clarification would appear as follows:



While our values do change as our life experience changes, we can re-check them at any time by using this quick method of clarification.

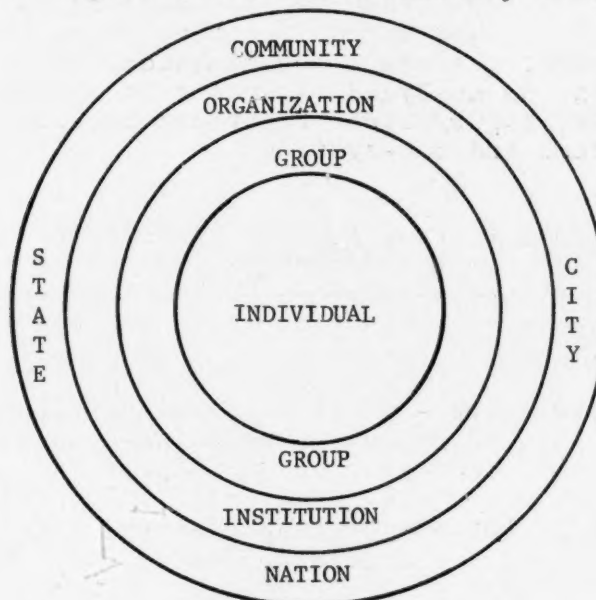
The above mentioned authors advance the notion that a great deal of apathetic, flighty, uncertain or inconsistent behavior stems directly from the lack of clear values. They believe that *drifters*, *overconformers*, *overdissenters*, or *role players* are all people lacking value clarity, and that value clarification can achieve positive results in resolving behavior difficulties of this type.

The relationship between value clarification and training seems obvious. We are not likely to be committed to invest energy in learning something that we do not really value. If we are involved in the process of choosing our own learning

activity from alternatives, selecting, affirming and acting on those things that we really value, we will be fully committed and the result will tend to be highly successful.

Some Methods for Assessing Needs, Interests and Values

Because all of us have different learning needs and interests, and because we value things differently and possess different levels of accomplishment or competence in carrying out our various activities, we must take time to assess, pool, and sort out alternative "pathways to learning" before we try to formulate learning objectives or design specific learning activities for others. There are a number of methods for discovering learning paths, but before we describe them, it is important to mention that organizations and communities, like individuals, also have basic needs, particular interests, and professed values. In addition, there are small group needs, interests and values, operating and interacting within organizational settings. This situation can be diagrammed in a series of circles. Individual and group needs, interests and values weave into and fluctuate through these circles in a constant dynamic process of interaction. The task of assessment, therefore, is one of linking and clarifying individual and group needs within the general framework of organizational or community needs.



Methods

Individual Assessment - Most of us are quite used to having others decide for us what we need to learn. This experience has been so common that sometimes we need assistance in developing a self-diagnostic attitude. Once adults experience the process of assessing their own learning needs by building competency models for self development, they seem to prefer this method to that of having others decide their learning needs for them.

Group (Assessment) Discussion - Assessing learning needs in small groups in which the members help one another to clarify their individual needs and become resources for each others learning can be a valuable and satisfying experience. Particular satisfaction occurs when the members are aware of and use the helping behaviors and processes of group dynamics. One technique that can be employed with this method of need assessment is to collect group discussion data on newsprint. In this way, the group can "keep track" of its conversation and visually see the needs of others as well as their own when the newsprint is taped on the wall. This can be both reassuring and a help toward remembering the different inputs from group members.

Questionnaires and Surveys - Data gathering devices such as projective or sentence completion questionnaires, organizational or community surveys, are most helpful. With these methods, it is necessary to report the findings to the population surveyed and respond to the needs generated (including the need for answers to the questions generated in the process of individuals completing the survey or questionnaires). Failure to be candid and open with the data collected can generate a level of mistrust that may be difficult to overcome at the beginning of a training activity.

Systems Analysis - New methods of systems analysis or input/output analysis have been developed in recent years that are helpful tools in assessing needs. Organizations as functioning social systems can be analyzed according to systems criteria such as feedback flow, input/output relationship, and the relationship of systems and sub-systems.

Organizational or Community Records or Reports - Needs are often made apparent as a result of formal studies or research activities conducted by organizations. Operating records can often indicate trends or give clues to the existence of potential training needs.

Professional Literature - Often professional journals or articles raise questions or produce new insights that lead directly to an increased awareness of training needs. A review of professional literature can be most helpful in providing a deeper understanding of the needs of specialized fields or activities.

Resource Persons - Talking to experts in various activities is a useful way to gather additional information or to gain a different perspective about training needs. Expert consultants are generally current concerning new developments in the field that is their specialty, and their experience can be a valuable resource for the discovery of problem areas.

Interviews - Finally, interviews with resource people of all kinds; workers, managers, community residents, city officials, and professional people, etc., can be conducted to find out how people feel and why they feel the way they do. This information may be tabulated (if so, a patterned interview form will be helpful) or may be recorded in general trends or categories.

The above by no means constitutes an exhaustive list of methods for assessing needs and interests, but it should be helpful as an indicator of various procedural approaches.

Once needs and interests have been gathered, it may be worthwhile to spend some time with value clarifying activities. Raths, Harmin and Simon offer some interesting and helpful techniques for eliciting value oriented responses from others. They call these clarifying responses and recommend that they be used as responses following statements expressing attitudes, aspirations, goals or purposes, interests, feelings, beliefs, problems, and so on. Some examples of clarifying questions or responses are:

- * Is this something you prize?
- * Are you glad about that?
- * Is that very important to you?
- * Did you consider any alternatives?
- * Do you have any reasons for saying or doing that?
- * Do you do this often?

Responses to these and other questions like them offer additional clues leading to further clarifying questions. Value clarifying is helpful as a method for deepening awareness of the precise nature of the educational needs of individuals.

The assessment of needs, interests and values requires a commitment to take *extra time* at the beginning of any program; time to discover *what individual differences and needs exist* insofar as the particular training program or activity is concerned. Getting acceptance from group members to take this time is often not easy. As has been said previously, we seem to have a tendency to rush ahead with program planning before adequately dealing with needs. A sense of pressure about deadlines, apprehension about the vast quantity of work to be accomplished, fears about doing a poor or incomplete job, all press hard upon us. Assumptions may be present to the effect that people have to cooperate even if they are not in complete agreement, but the fact is they will tend not to, unless they feel committed to the programs goals and it is hard to obtain that commitment unless individual needs have been assessed effectively. Thus need assessment is seen as a basic prerequisite to formulating training objectives and designing learning activities.

Developing Competency Models

One of the most valuable techniques for discovering (and constantly rediscovering) learning needs is the competency model.

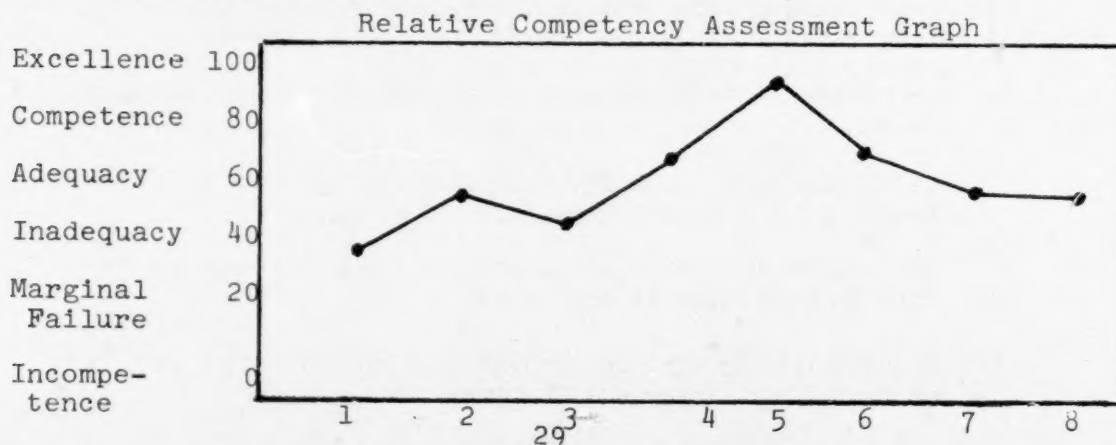
To build a competency model, it is necessary to decide first of all what the competency components are for successful or outstanding performance in a particular field or activity. When this is done, the next step is to determine your own present level of competence with regard to each of the competency components. Once this has been accomplished, the gaps between your present level of attainment and the required level become apparent. While this seems to be simple (and it is), there can be quite an impact when we clearly identify our own learning needs for the first time. The awareness of the gap between "what I can do" and "what I want to be able to do" produces a strong motivational pull to close the gap with all deliberate speed.

An example of this process can be demonstrated in looking at potential competency requirements for a position such as that of a purchasing manager in an industrial corporation. The required competencies might be the following:

Competence Factors

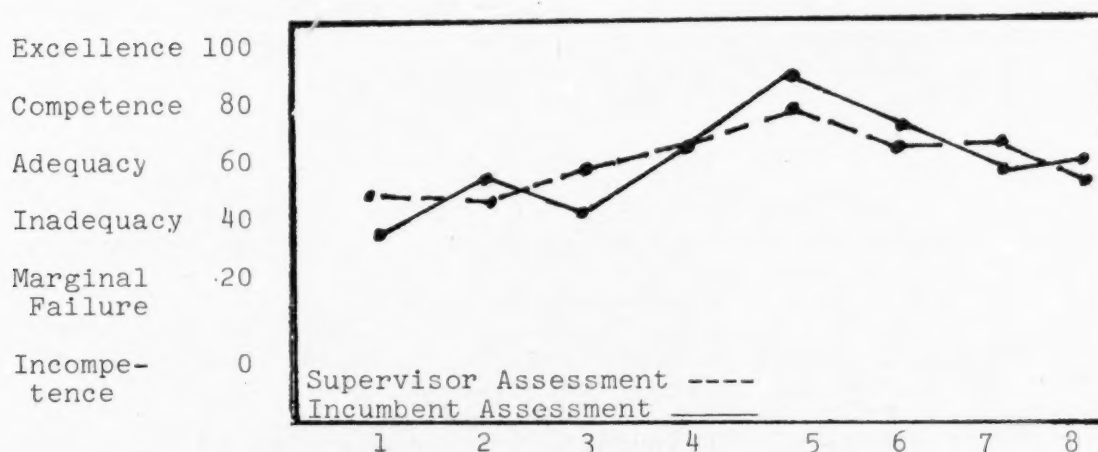
1. A knowledge of sources of products or materials or services required for successful corporate operations.
2. Knowledge of purchasing techniques and methods.
3. Familiarity with pricing structure, discounts, allowances, and quantity price breaks.
4. Awareness of delivery schedules and alternate shipping and transportation routes and methods.
5. Competence in lease/buy decision making and the negotiation of specific performance and delivery contracts.
6. Supervisory and managerial skills.

A study or task analysis of any position will yield its competency requirements. Once these have been obtained, a competency model can be built, based on the job incumbent's own subjective analysis of his relative competency or present level of attainment (see diagram).



Interesting results are often obtained when a position incumbent and his supervisor or department head prepare relative competency assessment graphs independently of each other and then compare them for a mutual diagnosis of training and developmental needs. Such a combined graph may look something like this:

Relative Competency Assessment Graph
(completed separately by supervisor and subordinate)



These comparisons can be useful when they are regarded as the *relative subjective perceptions* of those completing the forms. The graph is not intended to be evaluative but rather descriptive of the present level of competence or attainment and an indication of a recognized development or training need. It is helpful to avoid judgements that can produce defensive reactions and demotivation. Many programs that attempt to foster a commitment to goals and objectives get into difficulty when the goals turn out to be the supervisor's goals for the subordinate's improvement rather than the subordinate's goals for his own improvement.

Utilizing competency models in organizations can produce the following effects:

1. A growth of self-diagnosis of training and development needs.
2. Self-directed planning of personal growth programs leading to greater internal commitment.
3. Increased feelings of psychological success rather than psychological failure.
4. Clarification of supervisor and subordinate perceptions of attainment and competence.

5. Improved bonus and compensation planning
6. An orientation toward a continuing cycle of growth and development with a focus on forward progress rather than judgement

An important consideration to be kept in mind in using competency models is that of the relative time span for re-assessments. If the job incumbent and his supervisor establish a time frame of three months, the competency model can be reviewed at the end of that period to measure change or growth that has occurred in the interim. During the time frame, the incumbent must:

- First:
 - Assess his own learning needs
 - Formulate his learning objectives
 - Design specific learning activities for self-development
- Second:
 - Implement learning activities during the time frame

These four factors must be clearly spelled out prior to the evaluation phase at the end of the time frame. If the above factors are not specifically implemented, evaluation is not likely to show any change or learning. If they are, evaluation can become a re-diagnosis of learning needs at the next highest level of competence or attainment. While supervisory involvement in this process is not to be discouraged, it can be unhelpful and hindering unless it is provided in a coaching or counselling fashion rather than in an authoritative or judgmental way. Learning is not likely to occur unless a person is internally motivated to learn and this motivation flows naturally from the job incumbent's personal interest in the job and his own personal development needs, interests and values. A comparison of the competency model approach of andragogy with the pedagogical approach to competence in which the teacher decides and judges the relative competence of the learner and removes him from the decision-making process with regard to his own learning, clearly shows fundamentally different beliefs about motivation and learning between andragogy and pedagogy. While we may all freely choose which approach we prefer in our own practical applications in working with others, I have personally found andragogy to be inherently more satisfying and rewarding.

Group Dynamics - Some Special Needs of Individuals and Groups

During the past two decades, a great deal of research has been conducted on the dynamics of interaction between individuals and groups. Today much more is known about the fundamental properties or processes of interpersonal and intergroup actions. These processes form the basic underlying principles or founda-

tion on which andragogical education is built. They are related to andragogy in much the same way that gears, cylinders, wheels, and drive shaft are related to an automobile or like transistors, circuits, wires and tubes are related to a television set. If andragogy can be viewed as a vehicle by which adult education is conveyed, then the basic operating principles of group dynamics might be thought of as key operating parts of the vehicle or sub-processes of the whole. Schein (1969) identifies six basic processes or issues in group dynamics. They are:

- * Communications
- * Functional Roles of Group Members
- * Problem-solving and Decision-making
- * Group Norms and Growth
- * Leadership and Authority
- * Intergroup Processes

Awareness of these processes and their characteristics is an important dimension of trainer competence. They will be briefly treated in this section in an introductory fashion, treated in more depth in the next chapter and in other parts of Part I and given full treatment in an experiential setting during the residential workshop phase of Part II of this guide.

Communications

There are a variety of communications processes both verbal and non-verbal (gestures, body language, etc.). Some people in groups seem to do most of the talking; others don't apparently like to talk at all, but their presence is strongly felt just the same. Some people speak directly to others, looking into their eyes and others don't look at anyone directly; still others seem to choose special communication links, i.e., they seem to talk to the same few people all the time, either looking to gain approval for their ideas or seeking a closer identification with others.

Patterns of influence and respect can be observed in the communications processes of groups. High status group members seem to be allowed to get away with interrupting or cutting off lower status members and sometimes members wait for one person to speak on behalf of everyone. Then again, certain patterns or chains of communication develop; for example, Charlie speaks after Sam, who follows Susan, who follows Charlie. This pattern may repeat itself several times and soon a small coalition may develop that prevents others from getting into the conversation at all. One of the consequences of an interrupting or blocking type of communication pattern is the assumption often made by some group members that organization is lacking. More power is then sought for a chairman, who is able to control the group with strong authority. Schein says, "This solution substitutes

external discipline for internal control. It misdiagnoses the problem as one of organization rather than recognizing it as a problem of lack of concern of the members for each other, resulting in insufficient listening." (Schein, 1969, P. 19) Understanding the reasons for communications and listening behaviors in groups and being able to facilitate improvement in group communication is a much needed skill.

Laboratory education can enable group members to become more aware of their communications and listening behaviors and be most helpful in developing greater group awareness and improved levels of interpersonal competence.

Functional Roles of Group Members

Research on groups has shown that members perform different roles and functions. Early in group life, membership questions such as "Who am I in this group?", and "Will this group allow me to express my opinions openly?" are critical issues. In response to these and other tensions, group members perform different functions in an attempt to get the group moving. Some become strong task leaders, others harmonizers and compromisers; still others seek to work out conflict with tough, tender, or logical responses. When groups resolve initial emotional issues of membership, greater freedom develops and more flexibility of roles becomes possible. These issues will also be examined experientially in Part II.

Group Problem Solving and Decision-Making

While this issue will be treated at more length in the next chapter, it is worth mentioning that the value of groups as decision making bodies is a highly controversial question. The idea that "a camel is a horse put together by a committee" strikes a familiar note with anyone who has spent long and frustrating hours in an ineffective group. Groups can also develop the syndrome known as "Groupthink" (Janis, 1971), which can lead to a serious lack of critical thinking and over-conformity. On the other hand, groups have been shown to be highly effective and capable of consistently reaching better decisions than those reached by individuals working alone or by ineffective groups. There is considerable evidence available now to permit the conclusion that groups can be highly effective in decision making if the members understand and acquire the behaviors necessary to support effective decision making activity.

Group Norms and Group Growths

It is now clear that groups go through processes of growth and maturation much like individuals. Phases of group growth have been identified (Benne and Sheats - 1948) and (Schutz 1958), among others have developed models for looking at group maturation processes. Individual relationships of group members change

over periods of time, growing closer together as members handle conflict effectively, or farther apart if they don't. Norms are formed by groups and function much like traffic signs and signals. Censure results when these norms are violated. There are a number of dimensions for measuring the maturation and growth of groups. These dimensions will be explored fully in Booklet B - Trainer Skills Options of Part II of this Guide.

Leadership and Authority

Some of the most perplexing difficulties experienced by groups revolve around questions of leadership and authority. Many of us assume that leadership is a characteristic of personality rather than an acquired or functional behavior. Perhaps we may also find it convenient to assign "charisma" to others as a way of avoiding responsibility of our own. In any event, some people seem to wish to lead, others would rather follow, but the fact remains, leadership and membership functions can be performed equally by all group members when they know what those behaviors are and gain some practice in using them.

Intergroup Processes

Interaction dynamics occurring between groups have been studied extensively and the processes of intergroup conflict and collaboration are becoming more clear (Blake and Mouton, 1951). An understanding of these issues is of critical importance for anyone who wishes to perform a helping or training role within an organizational setting. This factor of group dynamics will be treated more fully in Chapter 7 of Part One and in Booklet D of Part Two.

Developing greater interpersonal competence can become a life-time pursuit. It seems there is always more that we can learn to improve our relationships with others; but a giant step toward achieving competence in this area can be taken by becoming fully aware of and able to deal effectively with the six areas of group dynamics and interpersonal relations mentioned above.

CHAPTER 4:

PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING - FORMING EDUCATIONAL AND TRAINING OBJECTIVES

General Purpose:

In the previous chapter, *problem finding* was visualized as a "searching out" of needs, interests and values. This chapter sees *problem solving* as a process of decision making in groups that facilitates the translation of needs, interests and values into educational and training objectives. The first section will introduce the idea of building a decision making model and will show that andragogy possesses the requisite qualities to be such a model. The following section will present various styles of decision making in groups and their usual behavioral outcomes. Identifying helpful behaviors and finding ways for improving decision making behavior will be the main focus of the next section and the chapter will close with a section on translating educational and training needs into objectives.

Steps for Building a Decision Making Model

Much of the confusion that prevents groups from being effective decision making bodies stems from a lack of clarity surrounding the content and process issues of groups. Six important issues of group process (the way a group works) were presented in the last section of the previous chapter. These process issues all have a bearing on the ability of groups to make effective decisions. It is quite common for groups to "bog down" or flounder on content issues (the task or primary problem around which the group is organized). Members often embroil themselves in debate over relatively minor points, trying to resolve task or content problems, when it is really their failure to resolve a group process problem (an issue of membership, leadership and authority or communication, etc.) that is holding up effective performance. Group members need to have some awareness of the process dimension before they can be really effective participants in group decision making activity. While laboratory training in T-Groups is an effective way to develop the needed skills, there are also other ways. One alternative is presented as the residential workshop in Part II of this Guide. This workshop is tentatively designed as an educational laboratory for developing trainer skills in applied andragogy, which includes decision making in groups.

Decision-Making Models - Developing a decision-making model can be a helpful way to introduce the process dimension of group dynamics while continuing to devote full attention to accomplishment of the task at hand. The general requirements for an effective model are:

- * problem formulation
- * generation of proposals for solution
- * forecasting consequences
- * action planning
- * action steps
- * evaluation of outcomes (leading back to a new definition of the problem)

These steps are logical enough when presented to a group lacking an awareness of the process issues involved in developing effective group action. Once a group has adopted the idea of working with a decision making model, a skillful trainer can introduce the other issues of group dynamics at various stages along the way, or when the group experiences difficulty in working through a particular step in the model itself.

The andragogical process model presented at the end of Chapter One may now be seen as a decision-making model as well as a design model for developing adult education activities. One difference between the andragogical model for decision making and other models is the emphasis in andragogy on "climate setting" and "developing a structure for mutual planning". These two steps in the andragogical process combine to form an "organizational approach" to decision making that proposes to involve everyone in the decision making process if they are assumed to have any part to play in carrying out the decisions that are made.

Styles of Decision Making in Groups

Fundamentally immature groups have resolved the problem of inability to make decisions in a number of easily recognizable and characteristic ways. The term "fundamentally immature" as used here is not intended as a negative evaluation, but rather as a descriptive term to indicate the absence of group growth and development. We would not expect a child, for example, to make all the arrangements for a formal wedding celebration. He would simply not have the necessary information; he would not know how to behave in contacting a photographer, an orchestra leader, a dressmaker and a caterer, and so on, nor would he know how to work with the wedding party and keep the bride and groom happy. It is the same with groups. If the necessary information on decision making processes is also lacking, the group can be said to be undeveloped or immature, not in terms of the maturity of the group members, but with regard to group processes. Interestingly, though, the absence of mature group processes may lead otherwise mature adults to act in immature ways when involved in groups whose decision-making ability is undeveloped.

The ability to make group decisions in which all members fully participate, are deeply committed to, and carry out

effectively, is an ideal state of affairs which leads directly to a condition of psychological success with all of its concomitant feelings of exuberance, praise, optimism, joy and excitement.

Unfortunately, most of us do not experience psychological success in groups too frequently because the behavioral skills necessary for effective decision making have been up to this point largely lacking in our society. What we do frequently experience are other styles of decision making which can lead to various kinds of negative or less satisfying consequences. Some of these other styles may be familiar.

The "plop" is a name given to a suggestion offered by a person in a group situation which proposes a decision (or a discussion leading to one) and is met by total silence or by total disregard. "Plop" occurs when another group member changes the subject by making a totally irrelevant comment or a counter suggestion.

Decision making by "self-authorization is experienced when someone makes a statement and then promptly proceeds to act on it without checking to see whether or not it has met with approval or disapproval. For example, "I think we should turn our attention to agenda item number seven next....Now the first point to consider on this agenda is".

The "handclasp" is a name given to the phenomenon of two or more members joining forces to decide the issue for other group members: "Yes, Virginia, that insight really puts things in perspective....So then, its decided, tomorrow we will begin."

"Baiting" is another form of decision making by putting pressure on other members to either agree or disagree: "No one disagrees, do they?", or "Everyone agrees, don't they?".

"Authority rule decision making" can come about through the prior existence of a power structure and the implication that no time can be wasted with idle discussion (the idle discussion being any issue the power group is opposed to or is not interested in). Decisions made in this way often run into trouble at the implementation stage, where a lack of commitment is experienced.

"Decisions made by majority vote or polling", like decisions by authority rule, are often found to be wanting when being put into action. Approaches like, "Let's take a poll to see where everyone stands." may seem to be democratic, but often result in blocking the expression of minority opinions that can contribute great value toward developing a creative solution.

A decision made by "unanimous consent" can also run the risk of being made during a rush of emotional fervor (accidentally neglecting to consider some important issues that will arise later to cause questions about the authenticity of the unanimous vote.)

The negative consequences that arise from the above forms of decision making are all associated with exclusion of group members from real involvement in the decision making process. When this occurs, the next result is to lose that member's commitment also. A way out of this dilemma can be found in developing the skills required to reach decisions through "consensus". Consensus allows for the searching out of objectives, with care being taken to try not to reach conclusions too rapidly, thus allowing all members to make commitments to the decision in their own way and to the extent that their abilities, needs and interests allow them.

Taking extra time with dissenting members can often produce valuable and unforeseen opportunities for improving the solution or its application. Dissent need not be considered to be a sign of "ill will"; opposition greatly extends the range of possibilities if handled constructively.

One word of caution must be offered concerning decision making by consensus--it is the danger of developing "groupthink". Janis (1971) points out the potential of cohesive ingroups to develop a dominant mode of "concurrence seeking" that passes for decision making by consensus. It is actually a counterfeit form because all members consciously or unconsciously suppress dissent, thus not reaching true consensus at all. There are eight main symptoms of groupthink, according to Janis, and all of them involve unwillingness to test assumptions against reality. The phenomena of groupthink again raises the question about the positive value of constructive conflict. It may be that our concern for maintaining discipline and order in organizations has so discouraged the expression of dissenting opinion that we must finally arrive at a choice between "groupthink" on the one hand or open rebellion on the other.

Identifying and Improving Problem Solving Abilities

What are the behaviors that are necessary for effective problem solving in groups and how can they be acquired? The answer to this question is not simple because while there are clearly definable behaviors that can easily be recognized as "helping" toward decision making, the mere fact of knowing what they are is not enough. Helpful decision making behaviors must be practiced to be learned and they must be used by nearly all group members for any group to become a mature

decision making body. It is probably for this reason that so many groups have difficulty. The chances that most of a group's members will have the requisite skills at any one time are somewhat remote, unless training activities have been conducted to facilitate the acquisition of these skills by a large proportion of the organization's personnel. While this type of training has not become prevalent as yet and might take considerable organizational time, the resulting improvement of efficiency and morale could be astonishing if it were employed on a large scale.

The helping behaviors required for effective decision-making have been divided into two groups; those that assist the group to complete its task and those that help the group maintain itself as a group.

Behaviors that help with task performance are called "Task Functions". They are: Initiating, Opinion Seeking, Opinion Giving, Information Seeking, Information Giving, Clarifying, Elaborating, Summarizing and Consensus Testing. These behaviors are more familiar and are seen more frequently than the "Maintenance Functions", which help determine the way in which group members work together. They are: Harmonizing, Compromising, Gatekeeping, Encouraging, Diagnosing, Standard Setting, Standard Testing, and Expressing Feelings.

Continuous opportunities will be provided in the workshop to practice these behaviors in group settings so that participants can experience the effects of their presence and absence.

Translating Needs Into Objectives - Moving from Problem Finding to Problem Solving

Translating group and individual needs, interests and values into educational and training objectives requires a high level of trainer skill and competence. This is often the most difficult step in implementing an andragogical design because the movement from needs to objectives always brings us to a "moment of truth". This is the time when the sincerity of authenticity of participant responses in the need assessment phase is strongly tested. When the moment arrives that calls for a positive commitment to action, it is often possible to observe signs of resistance, dependency, or withdrawal. When commitment is given at this stage, however, it can usually be counted on to involve dependable follow-through.

Dr. Malcolm Knowles (1970) has provided us with a helpful clarification of terminology for translating needs into objectives. He points out that there is much confusion surrounding terms like "aims", "purposes", "objectives", "goals", and "targets", etc., and he proposes the following standard definitions for program planning or the formation of objectives:

- * General Purposes (or aims) - The social and institutional goals of the program

- * Program Objectives
(or targets or priorities) - The educational or operational outcomes toward which a total program will be directed for a prescribed period of time
- * Learning Objectives
(or activity objectives) - The specific behavioral outcomes that an identifiable group of individuals will be helped to seek in a particular learning activity (such as a course, a meeting, or a workshop)

These clarifications can also be helpful in providing direction for group planning or objective setting activity. If decisions are made in regard to general purposes first, program objectives second, and learning objectives third, a planning group may avoid hours of confusion brought about when these issues are all mixed together.

A formula has been provided by Dr. Knowles to assist in translating needs into program objectives. It has three steps:

1. Organize the needs into a priority system and break them down into operational and educational categories:
 - * Operational - discuss physical facilities, budgeting, recruitment of training staff, etc.--move toward practical decisions and acceptance of shared responsibility
 - * Educational - list the educational needs and work toward consensus in decision making for formulating priorities.
2. Screen the needs through selected filters such as:
 - * Institutional purposes and philosophy of education--to meet organization and community needs and to avoid duplication of effort.
 - * Feasibility - to ensure that the program can be operated with regard to time, cost, staffing constraints, etc.
 - * The interests of individuals - to allow individuals to develop their own plans and to accomplish their own training needs.
3. Translate the surviving needs into program objectives and learning objectives:
 - * Operational objectives - work toward practical decisions.
 - * Educational objectives - work toward consensus.

In applying this formula, progress will be enhanced or hindered by the presence or absence of competent decision making behaviors in the planning group. Using newsprint to keep visual track of group effort is useful. As decisions are made, they can be recorded and taped on the wall so everyone can get a sense of group progress and members can visually see evidence of their own participation, contribution, and involvement. In working through this formula with a learning community, the trainer will have many opportunities to suggest alternatives and options to enable all participants to enter the process in their own way and on their own terms. The diagram below (Knowles, 1970, p. 358) may serve as a valuable aid to the trainer in smoothing the transition from needs to objectives.

OPERATIONAL MODEL
STEPS IN DECISION MAKING MODEL

<u>"Helping Behavior"</u>	<u>Steps</u>	<u>"Blocking Behavior"</u>	<u>Work Methods</u>
Clarifying Summarizing Testing for Meaning	DEFINE THE PROBLEM	Ambiguity Over Generalizing Over Simplifying	Problem Census Buzz Groups Problem Stating
Informing Requesting Information Sharing Experience Collecting Opinions	GATHERING THE INFORMATION (Ideas)	States attitudes too early Status Threat Size of Group Mixing Testing and Production	Buzz Groups Brainstorming Discussion
Reality Testing (Implications) Summarizing Harmonizing Clarification	IDENTIFY ALTERNATE SOLUTIONS	Lack of Experience Too hasty Decision Straw Voting Attaching Ideas to People	Discussion Role Playing Reality Testing
Summarizing Testing Consensus	DECISION MAKING	Voting Taking Sides Failure to Test Mixing Policy and Action Groups	Get Consensus Voting
Initiating Informing	ACTION IMPLEMENTING	Failure to Pin Responsibility Lack of Involvement No Mechanics Specified	Team Planning Committees Work Groups Individual Work

Preparation for Evaluation at This Stage

Once education and training objectives have been formulated, it is advisable to spend some additional group time in setting up evaluation criteria and methodology. There are three general tasks for education: to measure change in individual learning, in the learning of the group or organization, and in the learning of the general community that the organization serves.

A preferred approach to individual education in andragogy lies in utilization of the competency model for self-evaluation. Once objectives have been formulated, participants may wish to prepare models of their present level of competence and the "sought after" level in light of the objectives. Specific learning activities can then be designed with the idea of closing the gaps in the competency models thus produced.

Group evaluations can be prepared in a similar fashion. Members may wish to rate each other as well as themselves and a graph can be drawn showing composite group growth.

Community and organizational evaluation may be prepared by deciding which organizational factors are likely to be affected by the training program and then setting up an evaluation instrument that will measure those potential changes. More will be said about this technique in the section of Chapter 6 that deals with systems analysis and general systems theory.

If the above suggestions are followed, need assessment, objective setting and evaluation processes can all be linked together and joined with design and implementation activities to form a totally integrated learning process to which all participants are fully committed.

CHAPTER 5:

CREATIVE APPLICATION - DESIGNING AND CONDUCTING ADULT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

General Purpose:

Steps five and six of the andragogical framework, design and implementation, are viewed in this chapter as the *applications* phase of the process. Steps one through four can be seen as the *planning* stage, and step seven, evaluation, is visualized as the *reassessment and replanning* segment. The design implementation steps, taken together, are seen as a subsystem of the total system of andragogy; this means that all seven steps of the process are to be repeated again within these two steps. Chapter 5 begins with an opening section on designing educational and training activities for adults. This section is followed with a discussion on the formulation of design teams for translating objectives into educational designs and is followed by suggestions of some artistic approaches that can be used in designing creative learning experiences. The next session considers various formats for learning and relates them to teaching devices and training skills. The chapter closes with a section on implementing adult education and training programs.

Designing Educational Activities for Adults

In our practice as trainers or educators of adults, we can become so accustomed to thinking about what "others need to learn" and so used to being concerned about "our responsibility for getting across what we have to teach", that it is quite easy for us to forget that adult learning is essentially an internal process. As adults, we tend to learn only what we want to learn and we want to learn only in response to our own needs, interests and values.

In designing education activities for adults, it is helpful if we avoid an inclination to design the "content" of someone else's learning and concentrate instead on using our training skills to assist others in achieving their own learning goals. When we do this, we are more likely to be seen as a helping resource by the learning community rather than as a teacher. In this way, our help is likely to be sought more frequently. It may seem that "resisting the urge to teach" may be avoiding responsibility for training, but I like to think of this approach as one of allowing others to accept more responsibility for their own learning.

The Trainer's Responsibility

To summarize briefly from Chapter 1, adults seem to learn best when they recognize themselves and are recognized by

others as being capable of self direction; when their experience is valued and utilized as a resource for learning by others; when their learning is stimulated through the enhancement of their individual social roles and when their learning is directly related to immediate problem finding/problem solving activities. Formats for learning, teaching devices and trainer skills that foster self directed enquiry, experiential learning in groups, and practical results-oriented activities leading to constructive outcomes, tend to be most successful in working with adults. Combining these activities in interesting and creative ways is the trainer's responsibility. The key roles of the trainer in designing adult learning activities are those of first, creating an environment that satisfies adult learning requirements and, second, guiding adult learners through that environment in such a way that they can maximize their learning from it.

Forming Teams to Design Educational Activities

In pedagogical education, the teacher decides, for the most part, what will be learned and how it will be taught. In andragogy, this responsibility passes to the learner functioning as a member of a teaching learning team. Before discussing the teaching/learning team in detail, it may be worthwhile to enquire about its value or necessity. The English poet, John Donne, wrote the familiar lines, "No man is an island unto himself alone.". Donne's poem contemplates a reality of experience and also contributes to educational theory. While it is entirely possible to develop skill and expertise through self study, quite independently of others, we need others if we are to share our learning and experience. Because we live in a social environment, we must also find ways to gain, in addition, that essential kind of social knowledge that we cannot ever develop in isolation; that of learning how to live and work together. Collaboration and competition are both important social dynamics because both imply *relationship* rather than *isolation*. We have a need to be able to collaborate without losing our identity and to be able to compete without becoming destructive. The teaching/learning team can assist us both in serving as a vehicle for shared learning and also by providing us with an opportunity to learn more about the dynamics of groups and interpersonal relations.

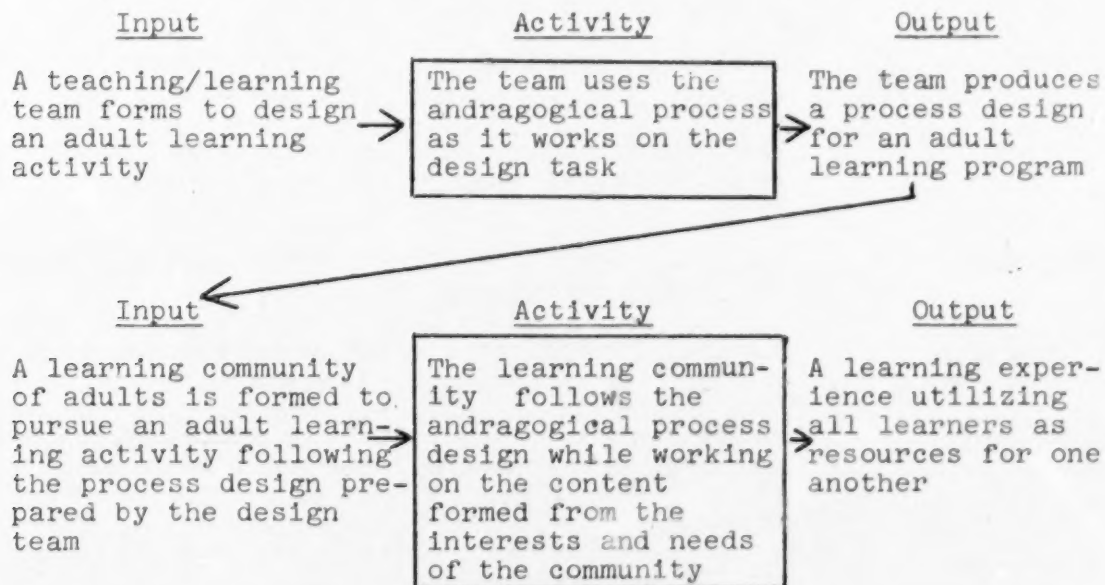
A word may be said here in relation to group activity in general and education in particular. If a group is formed expressly as a teaching/learning team, its primary task is that of education. If, however, a group forms to accomplish any other task, it is probably still involved in education as a *supplemental* activity whether or not the group recognizes this fact as such. No matter what the content of the group's activity, if active involvement and positive commitment of all members is sought and valued, and if the group grows toward maturity in its problem-finding and

problem solving processes, educational activity can be said to be occurring simultaneously with group task accomplishment. Andragogy is thus applicable to all group activity as a method of facilitating group process no matter what the group's task may be.

The Teaching/Learning Team

Teaching/learning teams can be formed for two different purposes; either as a design team to prepare an educational or training program, or as a group or subgroup in an actual learning design. In the latter case, members of the teaching/learning team work together to deepen their own knowledge in a particular area and to prepare a presentation for the rest of the learning community as a way of sharing their learning experience with others.

Once formed, a teaching/learning team immediately faces the task of dealing with the interpersonal and group issues that have been discussed at length in Chapters 3 and 4. Effective resolution of these issues paves the way for highly creative and productive group effort. As the teaching/learning team establishes a learning climate, engages in mutual planning by assessing needs and formulating objectives, it moves toward its central task--that of designing a learning experience or activity. It is in this sense that a teaching/learning team engaged in designing a learning program includes all seven steps of the andragogical process within the design step itself. In a way, this is reminiscent of the device sometimes used in dramatic art: "a play within a play". Design team activity also involves preparing a "process design" to facilitate learning by others. A diagram may clarify this point:



The above diagram attempts to illustrate a difficult concept. If, for example, the design team follows the andragogical process while working as a design team but prepares an educational program to "teach" something, the team can be said to be following an andragogical process to prepare a pedagogical exercise. If, on the other hand, the design team follows the andragogical process as it works together and, in addition, prepares an andragogical "process design" for the learning community, the community members will be helped to accept responsibility for their own learning and for finding and solving their own problems. While this approach may stimulate some "dislocation" at first, persistence through the initial discomfort stage will result in much greater adult involvement in learning and problem solving and a great reluctance to ever go back to the "old way" of being taught by somebody else.

An Artistic Approach to Educational Design

To design adult learning experiences that are truly creative, it may be helpful to borrow some ideas from the realm of art. Once needs and objectives have been clarified, it is a real challenge to combine them into a learning design that is artistically and esthetically satisfying to the learners. Artistic concerns that seem to have relevance for educational design can be seen in the following diagram:

<u>Artistic Form</u>	<u>Art Application</u>	<u>Education Application</u>
Line	Direction and continuity	Planning activity, choices
Space	Length, width, depth, dimension and relation	Program dimensions and limits
Tone	Shading, emphasis, balance	Program emphasis, climate, orientation
Color	Hue, intensity, brightness, warmth, etc.	Energy level, enthusiasm, interest level
Texture	Feeling, web, material consistency	Program content, subject matter
Rhythm	Motion, Timing	Flow of events, pace liveliness
Harmony	Relationship, balance, interconnection	Group activity, interpersonal relations

<u>Artistic Form</u>	<u>Art Application</u>	<u>Education Application</u>
Variation	Repétition with change	Repeating learning experiences at successively deeper levels
Opposition	Diversity, contrast	Design elements juxtaposed. Comparing
Transition	Phasing, thematic development	Movement from one design component to another

There are an infinite number of combinations of the above elements. Forming educational activities into a cohesive, intelligible and satisfying design is much preferable to allowing them to be presented as a disconnected hodge-podge of events. Careful consideration of these artistic principles while designing, and practice in applying them to adult learning, can help you to develop your own artistic technique as an arranger and conductor of interesting and absorbing adult educational activities.

Formats, Devices and Skills for Group Learning

The term *format* as used in this Guide, refers to the ordering or grouping of learners in an educational setting. The term *devices* is used as a descriptive term for the many different educational techniques, methods and products (equipment) used in educational design. *Skills* refers to the capability of the trainer or educator in combining the various formats and devices into effective learning activities. The purpose of Part One of this section of the Guide is to simply list various formats and devices in an educational setting. There are many formats, devices and skills that a trainer may utilize, and combining them offers an almost unlimited range of options. The list below, while certainly incomplete, serves to illustrate the variety of options available:

<u>Formats for Learning</u>	<u>Educational Devices</u>	<u>Trainer Skills</u>
Individual Study	Books, Magazines	General Linguistic
Small Groups	Pictures	Ability in both
Meetings	Film 8mm or 16mm	Speaking and
Clubs	Slides	Writing
Action Projects	Tape Recording	Audio-Visual Equip-
Workshops	Records	ment Technique
Demonstrations	Film Strips	Group Process Skills
Conferences	Video-Recording	Graphic Arts Skills
Courses	Easel - Flip Chart	Educational Design
Trips and Tours	Flannel Board	Skills
Community Relations	Posters and Signs	Skills in Applied
Programs	Chalk or Cork Board	Andragogy
Large Meetings	Lectures	Skill in Lecturing

Formats for Learning

Exhibits, Fairs,
Festivals
Conventions
Traveling

Educational Devices

Laboratory Methods
Process Groups
Buzz Groups
Brainstorming
Simulation
Games
Role Play
Non-Verbals
Case Study
Critical Incident
Teaching/Learning
Teams

Trainer Skills

Ability to arrange
and Conduct Meetings
and Conferences
Community Action
Skills
Organizational Develop-
ment Skills
Process Consulting
Capability
Management and
Administrative
Skill

The above list offers enough options for a lifetime of exploration and continuing development of capability. A trainer, then, need never consider himself competent or incompetent in an absolute sense, but rather as one who is on the way toward developing greater competence through continuous deepening of experience.

Some Suggestions for Application of Andragogical Programs

Experience indicates that there are certain training situations that will tend to prevent the successful application of andragogical education and training programs. The following suggestions are offered as a word of caution:

- * When the andragogical presentation is a part of a larger program that is not andragogical incongruency may arise together with a conflict over roles and expectations.
- * When program managers or directors are not thoroughly aware of andragogy and its aims and methods various forms of resistance can develop, often due to misunderstanding of purposes, objectives and of educational and psychological theory.
- * When andragogical ideas or approaches are presented to a planning committee or a group that are not andragogically oriented misunderstanding is likely to develop.
- * When there has been a prior pattern of organizational conflict, competition or confusion andragogy may be viewed as an attempt by one faction to gain advantage.
- * When andragogy is thought of as an ideology rather than as a "process approach" to adult education, ... resistance can develop from those who don't wish to be indoctrinated. Andragogy is not a system of belief or doctrine; it is a way of working effectively with others.

The above problems are representative of concerns that need to be dealt with frankly and as openly as possible. When these situations are believed to exist, andragogy might be effectively introduced as an "experimental" approach where the outcomes can be reviewed for their potential usefulness.

Conducting or Implementing Adult Learning Activities

This section briefly reviews the sixth step of the andragogical process. Effective program delivery depends almost entirely on the competent development of the other steps in the process.

There are two areas to touch on briefly in this section; operations and administration, taken together, is one; the trainer's role is the other.

Operations and Administration

The operational issues involve practical concerns for recruiting and training staff, for budgeting and finance, for preparation of and for management of facilities, for promotion and public relations, and for educational counselling or special assistance to individuals.

The Trainer's Role

In conducting andragogical meetings, the trainer's role is of crucial importance in developing a sense of enthusiasm, in being committed to the program design, in showing concern for the needs of program participants, and in sharing leadership with the design team. If the trainer behaves in an open, informal and democratic fashion, the implementation of any andragogical program will be enhanced.

CHAPTER 6:

EVALUATION - PROBLEM FINDING AS A RE-ASSESSMENT OF NEEDS

General Purpose:

The purpose of this chapter is to present the last step of the andragogical process not as an ending or as a completion point, but rather as the beginning of a new cycle of continuing discovery and development; a re-assessment of needs at the next level of attainment. This is the shortest chapter of the Guide because much of its material has already been presented in Chapter 3. The chapter presents two perspectives of evaluation: one from the standpoint of the individual, and the other from the standpoint of organizations. The chapter ends with a suggestion concerning the development of organizational competency models.

Some Varying Perspectives on Evaluation

As a decision cannot be said to have been effectively made until it is fully carried out, so too, an evaluation may not be considered as complete until it is shared with and accepted by all those being evaluated. The process of evaluation involves some fairly complex issues of group dynamics and inter-personal relations. It is one thing to make an evaluation; it is entirely another thing to transmit the evaluation information in a way that is acceptable and helpful.

In Chapter 1, we mentioned the fact that all of us have differing perceptions of reality, that these perceptions are *real* for us, and that whether or not they are correct or incorrect, we do *act* on them--they steer or direct our behavior. If we receive "evaluative" information from another person or group and this information does not match our perception of the situation, we will tend not to accept the information presented. For this reason, the subject of evaluation needs to be approached with caution.

Evaluation as a Re-assessment of Needs

It is probably worthwhile to first question the psychological impact of the term "evaluation". The term seems to imply judgement, criticism, or measurement; the process of applying value judgements to people and situations. We can relieve some of the tension in this term if we think of it more as a term to *describe* rather than *judge* the kinds of outcomes, conditions, problems, and situations that exist after an educational or training program has been planned, designed and implemented. Perhaps a term that would be closer to conveying the meaning intended would be "visualization, rather

than "evaluation". This term implies looking "at" and looking "ahead" simultaneously, rather than looking backward in the sense of exercising judgement. In reducing the psychological tension that emerges from judgmental behavior, we can approach the process of evaluation as an aid to personal growth and development in learning and with greater assurance that the learner will be able to receive evaluation data without becoming defensive.

Two primary purposes may be said to underlie all voluntary approaches to learning; first, the learner attempts to increase his awareness of the material being learned and also he makes an effort to improve his ability to "transfer" the learning, to be able to apply it to specific or concrete situations. Two tasks for successful evaluation then, might be to find ways of identifying increased awareness on the part of the learner and also to find evidence of improved "transferability". This approach revises the old pedagogical axiom, "If the student hasn't learned, the teacher hasn't taught." into a new positive axiom of andragogy, "If the learner has learned, he will be aware of his learning and be able to demonstrate it.". Evaluation, then, might be viewed as periodic attempts to look at increased awareness and improved capability.

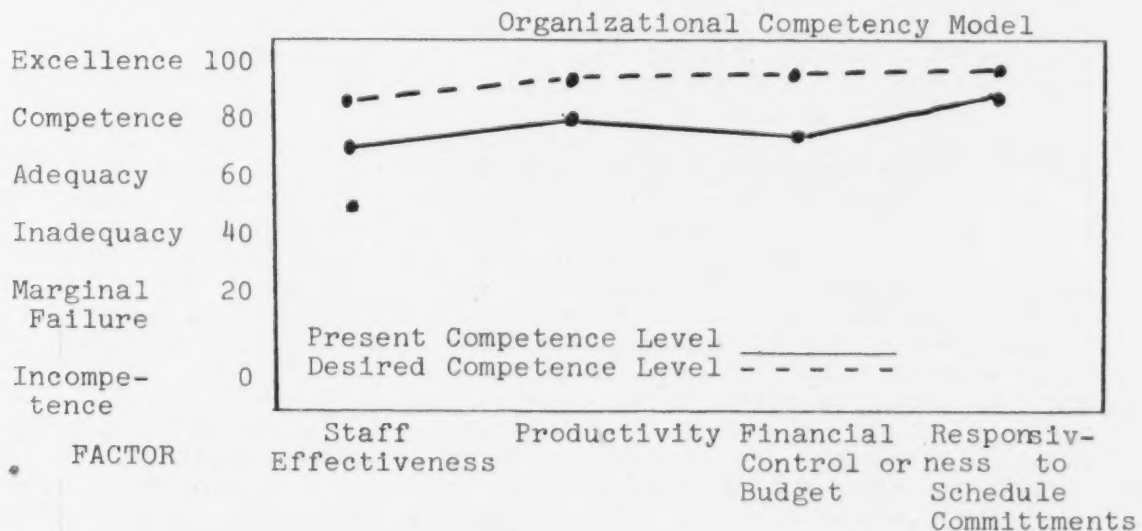
Chapter 3 of this Guide and this chapter stand in a mutually supportive relationship to one another. Because andragogy is a "closed-loop" process, step 7 "feeds back" into step 3 to begin the cycle of learning again at the next level. This andragogical learning cycle may be repeated with great rapidity (it is possible to go through the entire seven steps in a one-to-two-hour design meeting.), or be prolonged over an extended period of time (for example, a training or development cycle lasting for a year or longer). Each time the cycle is completed, the desired effect is a widening and deepening of the learning experience of the participants. The cycle may also be thought of telescopically; that is to say that sub-learning cycles are often conducted within learning cycles. This concept is similar to that of a television picture of a man watching himself watching a television picture, in which he sees himself watching a television picture. The successive images eventually disappear into infinity. The andragogical cycle operates in the same fashion, with the learning becoming more defined and specialized or more generalized in scope, depending upon the educational design or the program plan. The evaluation stage, therefore, cannot be considered as the end of the process, but only as a point on an ever widening or ever diminishing circle. Everything that has been said in Chapter 3 concerning problem finding as an assessment of needs, interests, and values is also applicable to this chapter. Everything in this chapter on processes of evaluation are equally applicable to the assessment of needs and the problem finding process. Evaluation is need assessment and need assessment is evaluation.

Evaluation of Organizations

While caring for the needs of the individual in regard to transmitting evaluative data in a non-threatening or non-judgemental way, we must not lose sight of the needs of organizations for information on program progress, efficiency of operations, cost-effectiveness and manpower utilization. Because of these needs, it is also worthwhile to view education from the standpoint of measurement or testing.

Testing implies that some assumptions must be made about norms. What is the desired state of affairs, the end product, the goal desired, and how do we attain it? It would seem that before these normative assumptions could be utilized, they would have to be validated or checked to determine if they were commonly shared by all those responsible for guiding or leading an organization. In the process of validating organizational norms, the needs of the various organizational units would tend to surface. As these needs would most likely indicate variances from the desired state of affairs, a "learning or performance gap" would start to emerge and an organizational competency model could then be prepared similar to the model described in Chapter 3 for the measurement of individual competency.

A diagram of an organizational competency model follows:



While specific criteria for measurement would have to be agreed upon within an organization to make a competency model of this type operational, the existence of attainable targets or organizational goals that were clearly identified and related integrally with individual and group needs (individual and group

competency models) would enable the organization to be much more responsive to its problem areas as it became clear that the lack of fulfillment of an individual's needs negatively affects the performance of the group to which he belongs and, in turn, places a burden on the organization in meeting its own needs and impedes closing the gap between the present and the desired state of affairs. The question, "What is required for this organization to be competent?" comes before the question, "What are the goals and objectives of this organization?". It is the failure to ask the prior question that causes many programs of management by objectives to get into difficulty. Setting objectives before assessing needs can be a highly frustrating process. Assessing needs first can lead to the formation of more realistic objectives.

CHAPTER 7:

EDUCATION AND MANAGEMENT

General Purpose:

The general purpose of this chapter is to show the relationship between education and training on the one hand and management and administration on the other. Both fields can be viewed as mutually supportive and interdependent. The first section will develop the concept of scientific management and show that the influence of science on the management process has only just begun to be felt. This section will move on to a discussion of the relationship between individuals and organizations and the broader issue of motivation and organizational effectiveness (productivity). The next section will deal with the application of andragogy to management and administration which builds logically into the development of training support systems within organizations. The final section questions the traditional role of the trainer and proposes a new role--that of "process consultant" or "systems interventionist".

Education and Management

Education and management have a long-standing and reciprocal relationship. From the early days of the industrial revolution, new skills had to be learned and new methods developed to meet the needs of the new technology. The old forms of classical education gradually gave way to make room for the new polytechnical education, which was seen by many to be more valuable in terms of task accomplishment and practical application. As education and science changed the nature of management and industrial output, the development of industry and the proliferation of new fields of endeavor has brought about major changes in education as it has responded to the task of preparing professionals for new fields. Government, too, has played a major role in developing education and management through the use of Federal and state funds to support universities and to sponsor large scale research and development projects. Perhaps the greatest change, though, has been prepared through the deep probing of scientific enquiry and research into the nature of the learning process and also into the psychology of management.

In the first chapter, general systems theory was mentioned in relation to education. Systems theory is the hallmark of the new electronic age; the age of linear and repetitive mechanical operations is over. (We do not mean to imply that "mass production" and its associated mechanical operations are no longer important--it is simply that they are no longer

"where the action is".). As a result of the development of systems theory, management itself is undergoing a major technological revolution. The problem today may well be that most managers may not yet be aware of the implications of this change and may still be operating on the assumptions that were valid in the era just ended. These assumptions, if allowed to go unchallenged, can cause great inefficiency. For example, the introduction of computer technology (itself a result of general systems theory) into industry, has produced a vast change in our economy, producing billions of dollars of additional capital. Unfortunately, billions more dollars have been wasted due to the failure of management and education to provide an effective means for integrating their "people systems" or human power with "computer systems" or computer power. The resulting inefficiency has caused large scale dislocation and losses in many companies.

Scientific Management and Human Relations

Frederick W. Taylor stands out as a leader of the school of scientific management. Taylor and the "efficiency experts" of his day made significant contributions in applying scientific methods to increase production. An unfortunate by-product of this approach, however, was the resulting neglect of the importance, dignity and freedom of the individual. This neglect was probably unintended, but two consequences followed: the rise of labor organizations and the development of a professional and scientific approach to the study of human relations. The studies, conducted from 1927-32 at the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne plant in Chicago, proved that human relations factors did play an important part in determining levels of productivity (Gellerman - 1963). In the years that followed, competition developed between those who favored the "hard" scientific approach of Taylor, Gantt and others and those who favored the "soft" human relations approach advocated by Douglas McGregor (1960), Rensis Likert (1961), and Frederick Herzberg (1959). Actually, the distinction between "hard" and "soft" represented more the way these groups perceived each other than the reality of the situation. The human relations approach, after examination, does not appear to be soft, nor is the scientific approach necessarily hard or "calloused".

The Need for an Applications Model

The problems that existed between these two different approaches to management is just now beginning to be resolved. The scientific management approaches to industry of the first half of this century were not invalid or incorrect--they were simply not scientific enough. In dealing only with mechanistic principles (mechanics and physics) and neglecting the extremely important scientific

findings of biology and medicine (including psychology), they did not deal effectively with the integration of living systems (people) with mechanical systems (machines) and, as a result, the "scientific managers" got into serious difficulty in terms of production loss, strikes, and the stimulation of general public disfavor. It is no accident of history that this period produced an abundance of "protective" legislation for both worker and consumer alike.

The human relations advocates, on the other hand, have been plagued with the problem of application. Many managers are in general agreement with human relations theory, but it is often seen to be exceedingly difficult to apply, hence "impractical". Here again, the problem seems to be that the scientific approach to human relations has not been scientific enough--a working model for applying the research findings of the behavioral sciences in solving practical operating problems in industry, government and education--has so far been lacking. As this is now no longer the case, a rapprochement between these two competing schools of science can at last be achieved. By applying general systems theory to education and management, the systems model of applied andragogy can bring about a fusion of human relations and science. This is a major step forward, offering great potential for the future.

Synergy

The idea of involving many levels of an organization in problem-finding, problem-solving activities may be disturbing to the traditionally trained manager. First of all, to accomplish this activity successfully requires practice and skill of a different kind than that required by yesterday's management technology. Secondly, some managers seem to fear losing influence by involving others. Maslow (1965 p. 93) quotes from *New Patterns of Management* (Likert 1961, p. 58):

"Another widely held view is that there is a fixed quantity of influence in a company or plant. Consequently, if subordinates are permitted to exercise more influence as to what goes on in the organization, the superiors have correspondingly less. The pie, so to speak, is thought to be just so big, and if some people are given more, others must have less."

Then, on page 58:

"This better management system, while giving the men more influence, also gives the high-producing managers more influence. The high-producing managers have actually increased the size of the influence pie by means of the leadership processes which they use."

The concept that only a limited amount of good exists has been with us for a long time. In a society where nearly everything is scarce, hoarding and saving are understandable behaviors. In a society of abundance, there is less need to act in this way. Many managers trying out the new approach to management might discover that power and influence operate much like love--"the more you give away, the more you have.". Finally, the new management approach required by the technology of today calls for a more democratic mode of behavior. Democratization is always fostered by increasing specialization and by increasing diffusion of knowledge. The manager of today must increasingly learn to guide the process of interaction among the many specialists in his organization rather than directing them through the use of authority and control. As intelligence and ability give us power in the first place, highly specialized knowledge, when widely scattered throughout an organization, does not permit the leader the same kind of power as that entertained by someone like Genghis Khan or Napoleon Bonaparte. The ideas of shared power, shared resources and collaboration for the greater benefit of all can be expressed by the term "synergy"--synchronized energy.

Individuals and Organizations

Argyris (1964) has provided us with an excellent study of the problems involved in integrating individuals and organizations. The relationship between the individual's need for personal growth, freedom and self-actualization and the demands of organizations for effectiveness, cooperation and teamwork, and, to some extent, conformity to basic rules, clearly raises a concern about motivation and productivity. If the realistic demands of the organization block the normal development pattern of growth and expression of the individual, is not the result demotivation of the individual and frustration of the organization's needs as well? It hardly seems reasonable for any organization to pursue a debilitating or partially self-defeating strategy, and yet that is what many organizations seem to do. Signs of this problem can be seen everywhere from high turnover and low productivity to high cost and low profits. It seems clear that a new management strategy, utilizing general systems theory, is needed to offset this problem. Another example, one in which the problem we have been discussing is particularly acute, is that of inter-group competition and rivalry within organizations. It is difficult to be content with the rationalization that inter-group competition stimulates better performance, when the obvious results of this kind of rivalry are waste, communications failure, defensive tactics, and delay. Time seems to be running short for solving some of these dilemmas of organizational life. Perhaps some experimentation with new methods of management is in order? Perhaps some risks must be taken if we are to find a better way?

Applied Andragogy in Management and Administration

Andragogy has been presented in this Guide largely as an approach to the education and training of adults. It may now have become clear that it is much more than a process for training. It is a process for management and administration as well. Do not the seven steps of the andragogical process outlined in Chapter 1 seem equally well-suited to conducting a business meeting, directing or leading a department or an operating division of a corporation or performing the administrator's role in a large government agency?

Perhaps a question might be raised concerning a possible method for developing this new approach to management while simultaneously working within the old structure. A suggestion on how this might be done follows:

The first step in organizational activity which is simultaneously an issue of organizational climate is that of obtaining "tentative permission to proceed". This permission generally comes from a higher organizational level and is granted either implicitly or explicitly, with the expectation that the effectiveness or competence of the organization will be enhanced by the action. The second step can be assumed to be a "validation of the problem" (need assessment) which requires the gathering of sufficient additional data to allow the tentative permission granted to be changed to one of official approval. The third step consists of building a work team, a committee or a planning group to formulate the tentative dimensions, scope or objectives of the task to be performed. This step involves careful consideration of the organization's structural realities with regard to the issues of inclusion/exclusion and membership. Who is to be invited to participate; who will feel left out if not included; who are the needed resource people; how many people do we need, etc.? When these questions are decided, the first planning session can be held. This planning session, following the andragogical process, could result in the acceptance of some clear responsibility for the performance of tasks which must be accomplished before the next meeting. For example, gathering additional data, locating new facilities, further planning, developing publicity, etc. At this stage, it would be most helpful to make a "progress report" to the initial permission granting authority, thus completing an organizational linking cycle between the formal structure and the andragogical activity. Once begun, the cycle repeats itself again and again as each stage of the project unfolds. A diagram may be helpful to illustrate this point:

A Diagram for Incorporating Andragogy Into A Traditional Organization Structure

Formal Organization Activity

Tentative Organizational
Permission Granted



Data Gathering



Official Approval Obtained



Planning Group Selected

Andragogical Activity

Project Planning Activity

1. Climate Setting
2. Mutual Planning
3. Need Assessment
4. Formulating Objectives
5. Designing Activity

Progress Report to Formal
Organization



Continued Approval to
Proceed Granted



6. Above Plan Implemented



Second Progress Report
Presented



7. Results Evaluated and New
Level of Needs Determined



Approval to Proceed
Again Granted, beginning
second organizational
linking cycle



New Planning Activity Begins,
following guidelines of above
evaluation and second round
approval. The andragogical
cycle begins again with climate
setting and mutual planning being
conducted informally



Completing andragogical cycle
through the design stage.

An analysis of the above diagram shows how formal organizational norms of information exchange and approval can be observed while andragogical activities are being conducted. In this way, experimental andragogical programs can be developed without threatening or replacing traditional operating procedures or lines of authority. It is not difficult to involve many additional people in the planning process. It simply requires a rearrangement of the time schedule of events. This method involves a greater expenditure of planning time at the front end of the cycle, but research shows that less total time is spent on projects and results are better because of the rapidity and efficiency with which the later stages can be implemented and because the systems approach maintains a tighter internal control over all aspects and variables of the project.

Building Andragogical Training Support Systems in Organizations

No training or educational program within an organizational setting can be fully successful unless an effective support system is built. A support system can be conceptualized as a horizontal system extending outward within an organization, while andragogy can be thought of as a directional system moving forward in time, becoming larger and deeper as it moves. This idea can be grasped if you think of standing on a railroad track as a locomotive approaches you. The background of trees, flowers, grass, fences and railroad station, etc., can be thought of as the organizational environment which must remain appropriate to validate the setting in which the train operates. The incongruity of a train moving down the main street of a busy town may serve as an analogy of what we mean by a training program not being properly supported by its organizational environment.

A support system involves at least four factors:

- * Organizational Involvement
- * Organizational Linking
- * Cultural Support and Re-entry
- * Follow-up and Reinforcement

Organisational Involvement

If training and development activities are to be successful, they must be organic; that is to say, they must be totally rooted in the organization of which they are a part and nourished by it. Organization members must become aware of the training, able to participate in it themselves if they wish, and have evidence of management approval and support. If the training is provided as a mandatory corrective for poor performance, the training climate may be adversely affected. If presented as an opportunity for continuing growth and development, the reverse may be true. In any event, the organization

must be solidly behind the training enterprise and not merely giving it lip service. Another way of saying this is that the training activity must be considered as an integral part of the organization contributing directly to the successful achievement of its most essential and central goals and objectives.

Organizational Linking

This concept refers to the integration of training outcomes to actively support the furtherance of organizational objectives. Training and development must be purposeful and directly coordinated with the needs of the organization and the needs of the individuals receiving the training. Individual and personal growth activities separate from organizational needs are highly desirable, but best pursued outside the organizational environment (many organizations support tuition reimbursement programs for this purpose), keeping the internal training activities directly related to the tasks and processes of the organization. In this way, linking will be facilitated and the training enterprise will be more viable as a central and essential activity.

Cultural Support and Re-entry

Persons experiencing andragogical education are likely to develop new insights and values that may create re-entry problems into the old environment. Those who are not receiving training need to be supported to avoid feelings of exclusion and those who have received training need an opportunity to share and try out their new knowledge, skills, or attitudes in a "back home" situation that will provide affirmation and support.

Follow-up and Reinforcement

All training activities that yield evaluation data as a reassessment of needs will provide the required information to conduct follow-up and reinforcement training. This kind of support is necessary to prevent erosion of the learning experience through the passage of time. If we don't use new skills, we will be likely to forget them. If we do, we need success experiences to stimulate continued use. This issue cannot be overlooked without risking the situation of continuously taking two steps forward and one backward.

All four of these support factors can be facilitated by use of the andragogical process model. Time spent on building a support system that accomplishes the above tasks will be richly rewarded by enhancing training efficiency. (While planning is also a support activity, enough has been previously said to make it unnecessary to repeat it again here.)

The Trainer as a Process Consultant or Interventionist

As much space has been devoted to the training activity, something must also be said about the role of the trainer. Some organizations regard training as a "necessary evil" or something to be tolerated. This attitude, where existing, places the trainer in a very difficult position that may eventually mean failure. Three correctives can be applied: one, the trainer can run a series of highly effective and stimulating training sessions; and two, top members of the organization's hierarchy can support the training function and give it public recognition; and, thirdly, the trainer can develop process consulting skills. A process consultant is one who intervenes in the activities of an on-going system for the purpose of helping that system to develop.

Argyris (1970) suggests that the three primary tasks for an interventionist or a process consultant are:

1. Generating immediately verifiable and valid data.
2. Maintaining conditions for allowing free and informal choice of all participants.
3. Working towards allowing and helping the client to achieve internal commitment to any new learning.

The skills and knowledge needed to become a capable process consultant are thoroughly presented throughout this Guide. The role of trainer as process consultant is that of developing and using strategies that decrease the restraining forces preventing organizational development and growth; strategies that reduce dysfunctional behaviors and organizational pressure, and that increase the likelihood of generating valid and reliable information leading to freer options and choices for organization members and a reduction of restrictions and limits.

CHAPTER 8:

AN EDUCATIONAL THERAPEUTIC

All education models contain implicit assumptions about the nature of man and human behavior. It is the purpose of this chapter to show the underlying psychological context from which andragogy is derived. Andragogy stands in between those educational models that exemplify the learning primacy of arbitrary irrational or ecstatic experiences. Andragogy recognizes the values of free experiential encounter while also recognizing the needs and requirements of social relations.

Chapter 8 begins with a general discussion of education and the therapeutic process and makes a distinction between interpersonal competence acquisition and therapy. The chapter continues with a comparison of different educational models and moves into a consideration of their implications for training. In the next section, the authors of this Guide make a personal statement concerning their own preferences regarding training, human development and education and the chapter closes with the conclusion to Part One of the Guide. This conclusion suggests that the ultimate referent for all theories, models, and processes is the trainer's own experience with them. It is this experimental dimension that will become the central activity of Part Two of the Guide and a means by which each trainer in training can form his own educational values from living experience.

Education and Social Health

In Chapter 1, the process of re-education as developed by Kurt Lewin (1948) was described as an effective way to resolve social conflict. There seems to exist in our society at the present time a fundamental conflict that revolves around the terms freedom, responsibility, dignity, spontaneity, change, stability and control. We have "hardhats" and "beatniks", "hippies" and "yippies", the silent majority for law and order and the vocal majority for peace and freedom. Is there any way to find meaning in all this confusion? Certainly most people want what is *good* and want to avoid what is *bad*, but it seems to be growing increasingly difficult to decide what is what. Perhaps Lewin foresaw this state of affairs before his death; perhaps he assessed the problem to be one of differing perceptions rather than one of irreconcilable conflict through "iron-clad" differences.

Throughout the first seven chapters of this Guide, the focus of attention has constantly fluctuated between the individual and the group. It seems that all of the conflict issues mentioned above revolve around the dynamics of man's role in society. A diagram of the conflict issues of our day might run along a series of continua that look something like this:

Independence—————Inter-dependence—————Dependence
 Freedom—————Inter-relation—————Submission
 Spontaneity—————Inter-action—————Control
 Anarchy—————Democracy—————Totalitarianism

These terms mean very different things to different people. Perceptions of meaning tend to differ widely on the basis of differing experience. If we can assume for a moment that no one is right or wrong (admittedly a difficult task), perhaps we can use that moment to explore some of the implications in the above terms for social health. Before we do so, it might be helpful to clarify the distinction between education and therapy.

Education and Therapy

The term re-education has been linked with the concept of "interpersonal competence acquisition" (Argyris 1968). The objective of competence acquisition, according to Argyris, "is to provide individuals with opportunities to diagnose and increase their interpersonal competence". Interpersonal competence is defined as the ability to cope effectively with interpersonal relationships. Argyris goes on to define three criteria of effective interpersonal coping as follows:

1. "The individual perceives the interpersonal situation accurately. He is able to identify the relevant variables plus their interrelationships.
2. The individual is able to solve the problems in such a way that they remain solved. If, for example, interpersonal trust is low between A and B, they may not have been said to solve the problem competently unless and until it no longer recurs (assuming the problem is under control).
3. The solution is achieved in such a way that A and B are still able to work with each other at least as effectively as when they began to solve their problems."

Some ways for individuals to gain interpersonal competence have been described in this Guide. Part Two provides opportunities for practice in improving basic abilities in this area. Some of the key elements for an education setting that would enhance interpersonal competence acquisition activities are present when individuals learn how to:

- a. "communicate with one another in a manner that generates minimally distorted information,
- b. give and receive feedback that is directly validatable and minimally evaluative,
- c. perform these skills in such a way that self-acceptance and trust among individuals tend to increase, and
- d. create effective groups in which problem solving may occur." (Argyris 1968)

If the above issues are related to education processes, what is the difference between them and therapy? Again we turn to Argyris for an answer:

"To give therapy means more than to change behavior. The word "therapy", according to the dictionary, means "to cure"; to cure means to restore to a healthy condition. In terms of this model, an unhealthy individual exists, or unhealthy aspects of an individual exist, when he has become primarily a closed system and when there seem to be no validatable reasons, in the present, for his closed orientation. An individual may need therapy when he is unable to marshal internal or external resources in order to become aware of the relevant factors causing his problems, solve them in such a way that they remain solved, and accomplish these two stages without reducing the present level of problem solving effectiveness (within himself or between himself and others).

The behavior of the closed individual tends to be focused on survival rather than on learning, it is repetitive and compulsive rather than adaptive and functional, and it tends to be adhered to either with a very weak or very strong sense of responsibility."

and further;

"The more closed an individual is--the more compulsive his behavior--the lower the sense of interpersonal competence will tend to be. The lower his interpersonal competence, the lower will be his problem solving effectiveness. Under these conditions, the individual may develop a lack of confidence in himself and a perception that the environment is primarily a hostile one. This, in turn, may cause the individual to withdraw, to become even more a closed system." (Argyris 1968)

Educational activities that foster interpersonal dialogue, sharing of feedback, trustbuilding activities and the development of group and interpersonal skills may well be considered to have a therapeutic value, but these activities are not therapy per se because they require a degree of

openness on the part of participants that is not present among those in need of therapy. In addition, therapeutic skills for helping persons who are closed are not the same as those utilized in facilitating re-education activities. Lewin's two requisite conditions for re-education thus become deeply meaningful: individuals must become actively involved with others in discovering the inadequacies in their present situation and work together to discover paths leading to improvement; and second, there must be an implicit guarantee of freedom for each group member to accept or reject the new values or cognitive structure. Re-education is for healthy, autonomous individuals who are open to relationships with others and willing to enter problem finding problem solving activities in relation with them. This activity leads to the development of greater interpersonal competence and leads toward a more constructive social situation a socially healthy society.

Different Educational Models and Their Implications for Training

There are a variety of educational models deriving from different conceptions of man and human behavior. For the purposes of this Guide, we shall contrast two major models from different extremes of the continua in the above diagram.

Operant Conditioning

A model presently receiving much critical attention is that recently proposed by B. F. Skinner in his recent book, *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* (1971). Skinner's model emphasizes the primacy of the external environment in explaining the causes of man's behavior and learning. According to Skinner, man's behavior is totally conditioned by external rewards and punishment, the reinforcement of which pushes man in the direction of seeking pleasure and avoiding pain. In this model, there is a denial of individual will, freedom, responsibility, there is no recognition of autonomous ego and behavior is not traceable to states of mind, feelings, personal characteristics, or human nature. All change is brought about by switching the controls of reward and punishment; therefore, Skinner argues, the solution to man's social problems lies in the direction of total social control--a society directed for its own good, presumably by those who know what's good for it. In this model, the manipulation of other human beings is seen as having a positive value.

Ecstatic Experience

Norman O. Brown is representative of another educational model that is amply stated in his book, *Love's Body*. (1966) Brown's model lies at the opposite end of the spectrum from Skinner's model. To Brown, the only meaning is that of feeling and experience. There is no objective reality out-

side of our inner sense of it. Change comes about randomly, chaotically or poetically; conflict and shock has a value in jarring a person's perceptual world and bringing about change. There is no control, manipulation is meaningless and the solution to man's social problems lies in the direction of securing total freedom. Ecstasy comes about through total annihilation of responsibility and is sought as a positive value.

Andragogy

The educational model of andragogy is based on the psychology of William James and John Dewey, which envisions man as capable of directing his own destiny. In distinction to Skinner's model, andragogy affirms that learning takes place from experience, but that man is free to choose his experience as well as his learning environment. Behavior is seen as directional, responding to internalization of experience in relation to basic human needs. In this sense, man is envisioned as "pulling" from inside rather than being pushed from without. At variance with Brown's model, man is seen as having choice and responsibility. Man's ego does not operate in isolation but must be tempered in relation to the egos of others.

Implications for Training

If we follow Skinner's model, we do not need to consider such things as training, development or education; we need only consider rote learning and "drill". If we follow Brown, there is no value in building a structure for mutual planning and learning to make decisions in groups. Training might well be directed toward methods for living in the wilderness rather than in a highly complex and industrialized society. While all of us are free to decide (not so, according to Skinner) which educational model we prefer, the authors of this volume wish to frankly state their own preferences for andragogy.

Part Two of this Guide provides an opportunity to test out your own educational values in the crucible of experience, an opportunity to derive whatever conclusions you wish from your own encounter with persons who are also desirous of learning more about working with others. We hope you have enjoyed Part One and that you find it useful in your practice. We welcome you to Part Two of *A Trainer's Guide to Andragogy*.

ANDRAGOGY, Designs and Processes For Experience

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PART TWO

ANDRAGOGY: DESIGNS AND PROCESSES FOR EXPERIENCE

Introduction

Part One of this Guide provides the underlying principles and processes of andragogy while Part Two provides an opportunity to experience them in a living encounter with others. While Part One is intended to be much more than a reference manual, it cannot provide the full operative dynamics of andragogy. Andragogy is best communicated andragogically. As a learning process for helping adults learn, its ideas and meanings can be communicated realistically when trainers in training gain practice and experience by helping each other to learn. It is for this reason that the "Five-Day Residential Workshop" that you are now beginning was prepared. Throughout this week, the primary focus of this workshop will be to involve ourselves in learning experiences that can improve our skills as trainers of adults. During this workshop, we will also be involved in the process of developing Part Two in the form of five emergent booklets on different aspects of adult learning whose worksheets and exercises will serve as a "living" or "lived" addition to Part One. At the close of the workshop, time will be provided to introduce Part Three of the Guide, which is designed to assist you in applying the andragogical processes of Part One and Part Two in your present training assignment.

Some Tentative Objectives for This Workshop

The training team that has designed this workshop would enjoy sharing its objectives with you. These objectives are tentative and can be modified, replaced or added to by your own objectives as we build this workshop together to meet our own learning needs.

- * To provide an experiential encounter with andragogy
- * To create opportunities for trainers in training to practice designing and conducting adult learning activities
- * To provide a means for deepening individual ability in using a series of teaching devices and training skills
- * To develop first-hand experience with the dynamics of adult learning in groups; problem-finding, problem solving activities and decision-making
- * To give the trainers in training ongoing practical and helpful assistance in their back home training assignments

Training Dimensions and Emergent Booklets

The design for this workshop is loosely constructed around five major dimensions of training. There are five booklets based on these dimensions. They are the following:

Booklet A - Adult Learning in Groups

Steps One and Two of the andragogical process involve setting a climate for learning and establishing a structure for mutual planning. This dimension of the workshop will explore the means by which groups can build a cooperative climate for learning from their own interactions and from utilizing each other as resources for learning. Booklet A is directly related to and derived from Chapters 1, 2 and 8 of Part One.

Booklet B - Trainer Skills and Teaching Methods

Steps Three and Four of the andragogical process involve assessing interests and training needs and formulating objectives for learning. This dimension of the workshop provides learning environments in which training skills and teaching devices can be explored according to your own interests and needs. Booklet B is related to Chapters 3 and 4 of Part One.

Booklet C - Designing and Implementing Adult Learning Activities

Steps Five and Six of the andragogical process involve designing and implementing learning activities for adults. This dimension of the workshop will explore fully the dynamics of this process. Booklet C, therefore, is directly related to Chapters 5 and 6 of Part One.

Booklet D - Management Analysis and Systems Intervention

The trainer of adults is often functioning as a consultant and interventionist within the system in which he works. This dimension of the workshop will explore intergroup and organizational dynamics and the relationship of training to management. Booklet D is directly related to Chapter 7 of Part One.

Booklet E - Evaluation Procedures and Application of Learning to Field Settings

Step Seven of the Andragogical process involves evaluating the outcomes of training and reassessing our training needs as a result of the data of evaluation.

This dimension of the workshop is concerned with the use of self-evaluation procedures in training as well as with the evaluation of the workshop itself. Booklet E is related to Chapter 6 of Part One.

As *training dimensions*, these five areas will be explored by means of varied formats and methodologies during the Five-Day Workshop. As *emergent booklets* of the Guide, each area will include descriptions of the particular exercises and formats experienced, explanatory handouts on the principles and models involved, worksheets related to the training experience, and collation sheets on the learning outcomes from such training.

It is our hope that this workshop will prove to be a valuable and exciting learning experience for you and the other trainers in training who are participating with you. The training team will be constantly available during the week to answer any particular questions or respond to any special needs you may have.

WORKSHOP CALENDAR . D TIMETABLE OF EVENTS

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:00	Breakfast	Breakfast	Breakfast	Breakfast
9:00	Arrival	Design Groups (Booklet C)	Presentation Two and Three of Learning Activities by D-Groups (Booklet C)	Reaction Groups (Booklet A)
10:00	Registration			
10:30				
11:00	Introductory Session (Booklet A)	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break
11:30				
12:00	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
12:30	and Free Time	and Free Time	and Free Time	and Free Time
2:30				
3:30	Skills Practice Session 1 (Booklet B)	Skills Practice Session 5 (Booklet B)	Evaluation of D-Group Process and Learning Activities (Booklet C)	Evaluation A. Evaluation of Personal Learnings B. Evaluation of Workshop Instruction to Part 3 of Guide (Booklet E)
4:30	Dinner	Dinner	Dinner	
6:00	and Free Time	and Free Time	and Free Time	
7:00	Reaction Groups (Booklet A)	Presentation of First Learning Ac- tivity by D-Group (Booklet C)	Simulation: The Role of the Trainer in a System (Booklet D)	
8:00				
9:00		Reaction Groups (Booklet A)		
10:00	Free Time			
11:00				

BOOKLET A
ADULT LEARNING IN GROUPS

BOOKLET A - ADULT LEARNING IN GROUPS

Introduction

Much of our life is lived as a member of groups--family, social and professional. By "group", we mean any face-to-face interpersonal encounter involving cooperative effort. Recent studies in the dynamics of groups have attempted to find ways to harness the creative potential involved in interpersonal interaction and ways to avoid the many ineffective behaviors of group leadership and membership.

Effective training of adults relies heavily on the creative utilization of group forces. Indeed, the trainer's prime responsibility in whatever training program he is administering is to facilitate the process whereby individuals become effective resources to one another's learning. Helping persons learn and grow from human and productive interaction with each other and their common group context is an important dimension of every training activity.

There are two specific conditions for group effectiveness that are particularly important if effective training results are to be achieved.

- * Effective training involves interaction with the whole person--his feelings, emotions, and values, as well as his cognitive ideas and beliefs. A group setting where personal reactions and interpersonal behaviors can be explored openly is necessary for the integration and internalization of learning.
- * Effective training also requires a climate in which there is trust between members, a cooperative spirit, and a freedom of participation (absence of group pressure).

These two conditions do not occur automatically but must be developed by the members during the training sessions.

Workshop Instructions

For approximately seven and one-half hours during the week, we will meet as Reaction Groups (R-groups). Our task will be to discuss together whatever issues, problems, questions, feelings, or reactions we experienced during the day. These groups offer an opportunity to look at our personal behavior patterns in order that we can more adequately correlate our intentions, our ideas, our feelings, and our actions and share them openly with others.

Each group will be joined by a member of the training team. The training team member will be a resource person to the group and will not function as a task chairman. The development of an effective working group is the responsibility of all the members.

During the day following each meeting of the R-groups, a time will be provided for a report on group activity to be made to the rest of the training community. R-groups can schedule meetings on their own time whenever they wish.

R-GROUP PERSONNEL SHEET

This listing is for your own personal use. You may want to remember who's who in your group and where you can reach them.

	<u>NAME</u>	<u>ADDRESS</u>	<u>PHONE</u>
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			
9.			

(Note: This listing will be prepared at the workshop by the training team and will be reproduced and distributed to each of the members after they have divided into R-groups.)

INTRODUCTORY SESSION

EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF EXERCISE: * To establish a climate for learning

* To engage in mutual planning to formulate goals and objectives for the workshop

Procedure:

The training staff opens this first community meeting with self introductions, and an orientation to the design and tentative goals of the workshop as stated in the Introduction to Part Two of the Guide.

The total group is then asked to form into pairs, each picking a partner who is not known to him. Each pair introduces themselves and shares their feelings and ideas about the workshop and about their expectations, interests and concerns in regard to it.

After approximately fifteen minutes, each pair is asked to link up with another pair. Each member is asked to introduce his partner to the opposite member of the other pair. The foursomes thus formed are asked to make a list of their common goals and expectations for the workshop.

After approximately fifteen minutes, each foursome is asked to name a representative to report to the total group on their shared interests and goals for the workshop. These reports will be recorded on flipcharts for use during the training week (cf. Booklet C - Group Collation Sheet - Interests).

After the report session, each foursome is asked to join with another foursome and evaluate their experience during the preceding exercise.

Application

This exercise will afford the training community an opportunity to experience the dynamics of climate setting and creating a structure for mutual planning. When the group of four turns into four groups of eight for the evaluation session, they will have chosen their R-groups that they will remain with for the rest of the week.

THE DYNAMICS OF GROUPS

the Kirtles in "Introduction to Group Dynamics" (Knowles 1959) group as having the following general qualities:

- 1) definable membership--a collection of two or more people identifiable by type
- 2) consciousness--the members think of themselves as a group, have a "collective perception of unity", and identify with each other
- 3) a sense of shared purpose--the members have the same "best model" or goals or ideal
- 4) cohesiveness in satisfaction of needs--the members seek the help of one another to accomplish the purpose for which they joined the group
- 5) Interaction--the members communicate with one another, influence one another, react to one another
- 6) Ability to act in a unitary manner--the group can behave as a single organism

These qualities describe what one might call a "mature" group--one that has met together over a period of time and that has worked through many of the problems of task effectiveness and group maintenance that preoccupy "young" groups. It is therefore an ideal model--a goal to work toward in the groups in which we are members.

As a result of extensive research into the dynamics of groups, certain leadership styles and member roles and functions have been identified as helpful in achieving the group goal of building a "mature" group. These qualities are the same that help the group be a highly effective learning team. Some of these factors are listed below.

Groups tend to mature and build valuable learning and working environments when the leader:

- is non-authoritarian; open with himself and his feelings and plans;
- involves the members in the group's tasks and responsibilities;
- listens well; is non-judgemental and supportive;
- is aware of the dynamics operative in the group and skilled in maintaining and helping the group toward the accomplishment of *its* and not *his* goals

Groups tend to mature and build valuable learning and working environments when the *members*:

- assume the responsibility for sharing leadership in the group;
- have trust, confidence, and respect for each other as persons and as resources for their own learning;
- are willing to share their feelings and values with the group so that clear communication can be effected;
- participate in accomplishing the group's tasks and are personally committed to the betterment of the group;
- satisfy their individual needs and achieve personal growth as a result of involvement in the group.

When the above qualities are present, group activity can be highly creative and effective. One of the tasks of this workshop is to experience the difficulties and pleasures of learning to work with other adults in groups. If you are interested in learning more about this subject, a Trainer Skills Option has been provided for that purpose in this workshop.

A MODEL FOR LEARNING IN GROUPS

When R-groups form initially, it is easy to spend all of the group's time in working on the immediate task (or content) while losing sight of the way in which the group is growing toward, or moving away from, group maturity. There are various models or ways of looking at the processes of group interaction. Here is one model that may be helpful:

Group Learning Sequence

Expression of Experience - Before the group can help you in learning about/from your experience, you must first tell them about what you felt and did. In the R-groups, this "experience" can be your reactions from the day concerning problem areas, events, or feelings that particularly affected you or personal behavior by you or others which you thought beneficial or detrimental. Also, the emergent issues and reactions of members during the actual R-group meeting time can be the experience which you take as the content of your investigation.

Focusing - Locate a particular problem area in that experience which you reveal or observe in the R-group. Identify those aspects you would like to work on as a group. Identify the group processes you would like to know more about.

Feedback and Sharing - Utilizing each other as resources, explore the ways in which you have worked together and the issues of membership and leadership involved. Sharing of perspectives, ideas and feelings can help clarify and increase understanding if we realize that our perceptions are not necessarily right or wrong, but they are real for us, even though others may disagree with our views.

Generalize and Apply - Once the group begins to get a clear picture of the particular question presented and have explored together the texture of it, it is often helpful to apply your findings to other like or contrasting situations. Here low level generalization can be helpful to accomplish this transfer.

Evaluate - There are then two dimensions that call for evaluation--the first concerns the learnings that have been discovered about the particular problem or issue presented. The second concerns the processes your group went through that were helpful or not helpful in arriving at those learnings. Look at the here and now dynamics of your R-group.

WORKSHEET

To assist you in practicing the skills of learning in groups, please complete this form. It may help to clarify the above steps and might also, if you wish, provide a topic for your particular R-group to work on:

Expression of Experience - What happened? What are the issues in your group? How did you feel about them!

Focusing - What is it about that problem, feeling, or issue you want to work on? What is the important part to you?

Feedback and Sharing - How do others see the issues? What are their feelings about them? Is anyone trying to clarify issues or harmonize any divergent views?

Generalize and Apply - How does the issue(s) which is being discussed relate to other experiences you have had? Have you learned anything from this experience?

Evaluate - Where is your group in regard to the issues? Where do you want it to be?

A THEORY OF PERSONAL CHANGE

Educators and psychologists in the last few years have been much concerned with the dynamics of change--how it happens, how to facilitate it, and how to build non-manipulative, self-actualizing values into the planning of change. The following comments outline a process of change which may provide helpful insight for you.

- 1) Awareness of a problem - Before any movement can take place, the persons concerned must be aware a problem exists and uneasy with the status quo. This dissatisfaction, anxiety, or frustration can provide an initial motivation for training. This can be described as an unfreezing process where old behavior patterns or habitual procedures are no longer assumed to be the only way of proceeding.
- 2) Testing alternatives - Having located a problem, new ways can be explored in relation to solving the difficulty. This is an experimental approach which involves an openness to novel and sometimes risky innovations, ideas, and behaviors. Such new behaviors, procedures or ideas can be practiced, tried out, and given a live test run. Once this is done there will most likely be data and feedback produced which can help in reaching a decision for a solution or behavior that may meet the expressed need. A number of alternatives may be possible.
- 3) Re-inforcement - Once a workable method has been selected, repetition will tend to build continuing support until the new pattern becomes accepted as a behavioral action or life style. This follow-up support of training outcomes is an important consideration in designing and implementing any training activity.

A THEORY OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Being a member or leader of any learning group, no matter what its actual task or specific purpose makes available additional opportunity to observe "group dynamics". A knowledge of the fundamental processes of group dynamics is a valuable asset in building effective team, committees, task forces, and educational programs. Being a participant/observer of the groups in which you belong is a most helpful way to learn more about group dynamics. A participant/observer is a full member of the group, working on its tasks and interacting with others while also being an observer of its processes and helping the group to build itself toward maturity.

Dr. William C. Schutz has outlined a helpful theory for looking at groups. This theory may provide you with a useful tool in looking at your R-groups as well as other groups in which you participate.

Schutz's theory asserts that we direct and receive three basic needs toward and from other people: *inclusion*, *control* and *affection*.

Inclusion - - - - - This term refers to the need to be with people as well as the need to be alone. We need to feel that we are a part of the groups in which we participate. We need enough interaction, acceptance, and ownership of the group activities so that we feel satisfied and fulfilled. A lack of inclusion can lead to feelings of withdrawal, loneliness and isolation.

Types of Inclusion Behaviors - Oversocial - We tend to feel uncomfortable when we are not associating with people. We are afraid of being alone and therefore can be over-dependent on others.
Social - We feel a satisfactory balance between being in the presence or absence of other people, indicating that we possess a level of interdependent comfort.
Undersocial - We are uncomfortable in interaction with others; we are withdrawn and separate from others--interdependent in the sense of being out of the group.

- Control - - - - - This term refers to the need to have enough influence and power so as to be able to be self-directing and respected for our competence. We need to receive recognition from others and to give recognition to others for their ability.
- Types of Control Behaviors - Autocrat - We always have to be in charge and in control. We cannot rely on others.
Democrat - A more satisfactory balance between controlling and relinquishing control. We have a sense of responsibility and influence while we can also respect the abilities and leadership of others.
Abdicrat - We cannot seem to handle leadership or responsibility and are dependent on others. We are followers without a sense or direction worth fighting for.
- Affection - - - - - This term refers to the need to be loved and to love--and also to relate comfortably with others as friends and associates. We need the mutual give-and-take of emotionally involving relationships of varying intensities.
- Types of Affection- Behaviors - - - - - Overpersonal - We are overly desirous of close relationships that never are intense and affectionate enough. There is a disproportion between our need to be loved and our ability to give love in return.
Personal - We are comfortable in a close relationship as well as a less intimate one and are balanced in our need to love and our need to be loved.
Underpersonal - We don't like to get emotionally involved with others and are afraid of too intimate contact with others.

In any group setting, according to Dr. Schutz, the first focus becomes that of *inclusion* or membership. Implied questions are often:

Am I a member of this group?
 How much am I willing to risk of my real self in this group?

Can I trust others in this group
to support and accept me?

After these issues have been dealt with at some length,
the group moves to concerns about *control* and authority.
Implied questions then are often:

Who is calling the shots here?
Who has the influence and power?
Can I say what I really think
and should I say it?
What effect will it have?
What is required of me to maintain
my membership here?

After these questions are worked on, the group moves on
to the concerns about *affection* and the relationship of group
members. Related questions may be:

Can I love in this group?
Can I show it?
Does anyone care for me?
Who do I feel close to here and
who do I feel distant from?

These issues continue to turn in cycles of Inclusion,
Control, Affection (ICA), as the group moves toward maturity.
Near the end of the group's life, before it is ready to dis-
perse or end its tasks, the process tends to reverse itself and
the issues work out in reverse order: Affection, Control, Inclu-
sion (ACL). Observation of a group beginning to separate yields
the following data:

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| Affection | - First the group members begin to
pull away from relationships in
the group that have no real future. |
| Control | - Then the group again works on the
question, "Who is in charge here?". |
| Inclusion | - Finally, members begin to ask them-
selves if they really want to be a
part of the group and put the
required time and effort into it
to keep it together. |

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY I

NAME _____ DATE: _____

Along a scale from 1-9, with (1) being the lowest and (9) being the highest, please score the following questions:

1. MEMBERSHIP: How much do you feel that you are a fully-functioning and accepted member of your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

2. GOALS: How well defined and clear are the purposes and goals of your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

3. TASK: How well did your group contribute to your understanding of the personal reactions and particular issues you presented to the group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

4. PROCESS: How much did you learn about group processes and how groups function?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

5. PARTICIPATION: How freely were feelings and personal reactions expressed and examined in your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

6. SUPPORT: How helped and/or supported did you feel in your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

7. VALUE: How valuable was your first R-group meeting to you?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

8. Comments and Suggestions:

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY II

NAME _____ DATE: _____

Along a scale from 1-9, with (1) being the lowest and (9) being the highest, please score the following questions:

1. MEMBERSHIP: How much do you feel that you are a fully-functioning and accepted member of your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

2. GOALS: How well defined and clear are the purposes and goals of your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

3. TASK: How well did your group contribute to your understanding of the personal reactions and particular issues you presented to the group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

4. PROCESS: How much did you learn about group processes and how groups function?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

5. PARTICIPATION: How freely were feelings and personal reactions expressed and examined in your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

6. SUPPORT: How helped and/or supported did you feel in your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

7. VALUE: How valuable was your second R-group meeting to you?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

8. Comments and Suggestions:

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY III

NAME _____ DATE: _____

Along a scale from 1-9, with (1) being the lowest and (9) being the highest, please score the following questions:

1. MEMBERSHIP: How much do you feel that you are a fully-functioning and accepted member of your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

2. GOALS: How well defined and clear are the purposes and goals of your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

3. TASK: How well did your group contribute to your understanding of the personal reactions and particular issues you presented to the group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

4. PROCESS: How much did you learn about group processes and how groups function?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

5. PARTICIPATION: How freely were feelings and personal reactions expressed and examined in your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

6. SUPPORT: How helped and/or supported did you feel in your group?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

7. VALUE: How valuable was your third R-group meeting to you?

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

8. Comments and Suggestions:

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY V

This last evaluation sheet on your R-groups is meant to be a feedback exercise for each member to learn and assess his behavioral communication to others in the group. You will also evaluate yourself and every other person in your group. Then, having collected your personal assessment from the other members, compare and collate the average.

GUIDE FOR BEHAVIOR RATINGS

Here are the explicit definitions of each of the twelve ratings. Please keep this guide in front of you while you rate yourself or other members of your group, and base your ratings on the specific behaviors listed to describe each scale.

1. Listening Skills: Works at understanding what others are saying; asks others to repeat; asks others to clarify. Tells others what he has heard; seems to have understood correctly what others said.
2. Saying Skills: Says things clearly, using words others can understand. Speaks in a way that is direct and to the point. Asks what others have heard and offers to clarify. Others seem to understand correctly what he has said.
3. Openness: Shares feelings and ideas spontaneously. Willing to discuss own strengths and weaknesses. His emotions show clearly and appropriately (e.g., joy, boredom, anger, sorrow, etc.).
4. Trust: Willing to listen to and try out others' ideas. Seeks and accepts help from others. Shows that he expects others to be sincere and honest with him.
5. Feedback: Asks for others' impressions of him. Shares his views of others with them. Seems aware of whether or not others are ready to receive his views; presents views in a way that is helpful. Lets others know when they have been helpful to him.
6. Awareness of Own Behavior: Shows he is aware of how others reacting to his behavior; shows he is aware of how he is reacting to the behavior of others; shows he is considering the implications to himself; uses this awareness in considering whether or not his own behavior is what he wants it to be.

Experimenting with Own Behavior: Shows flexibility in taking different roles in the group at different times (e.g., leader, clarifier, etc.). Shows increasing variety of ways he relates to specific members of the group. Shows he is thinking about the meaning to himself as he tries these different behaviors.

Contributes to Group's Awareness of Itself: Helps members to be aware of what is happening as a group. Raises questions about what the group is doing, feeling, heading toward; offers own views on what the group is doing, feeling, etc.

Problem Solving Effectiveness: Helps the group to make realistic progress in problem solving efforts. Is effectively work-orientated. Aids group productivity.

Helping Group Maintenance: Works well with own and others feelings; helps develop and maintain good relationships in the group.

Group Diagnostic Ability: Able to understand why things happened as they did in the group; can explain group difficulties as a basis for corrective or supportive action.

Overall Effectiveness as a Group Member: All things considered, makes effective contribution to own and others learning and work.

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY V

Group Member _____ Date: _____

Rated By _____ Time of Day _____

1. Listening Skills:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

2. Saying Skills:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

3. Openness:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

4. Trust:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

5. Feedback:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

6. Awareness of Own Behavior:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

7. Experimenting with Own Behavior:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

8. Contributes to Group's Awareness of Itself:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

9. Problem Solving Effectiveness:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

10. Helping Group Maintenance:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

11. Group Diagnostic Ability:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

12. Overall Effectiveness as a Group Member:

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

BOOKLET B
TRAINER SKILLS AND TEACHING DEVICES

BOOKLET B - TRAINER SKILLS AND TEACHING DEVICES

Introduction

Within the last twenty years, there has been an explosion in the research and development of new teaching methods, devices, formats, and techniques. Kits, games, programmed learning devices and audio-visual machines have flooded the market and have added much variety to the training experience. They have not, however, been used with uniform success because the trainer must have the skills to use these formats and devices and know how to effectively integrate them into a training program. There are three primary training needs that result from this situation and call for:

1. The enlargement of one's knowledge of different formats for adult learning;
2. The development of the capability to use a wide variety of formats in the training of adults;
3. Perhaps most importantly, the development of a capability to continually sharpen the skills you have while exploring and developing new ones.

These three training needs are interdependent. Merely having at hand a storehouse of devices for training without the ability to effectively integrate them into educational programs results in a "gimmicky" approach lacking depth, insight, and real learning. And also, no matter how many devices or techniques we learn to use, new ones will always develop and training situations will continue to vary. An essential need for trainers, then, seems to be, to develop a skill in learning new skills.

This dimension of the workshop, "Trainer Skills and Teaching Devices", therefore, will stress the practical application of skills development for improvement of trainer ability. Each Skills Practice Session will consist of a design for working with a training device or skill and for learning creative application to training. These sessions will focus on improving trainer competence and also forming diagnostic ability in utilizing training resources.

Workshop Instructions

Each participant at this workshop is himself best able to decide which skills and devices he would like to work on. In the first scheduled Skills Practice Session, each trainer in training will develop a competency model relating to andragogy, general trainer competency, and present job requirements. Following this assessment of present training skills and indi-

vidual learning needs, each trainer in training will select from the following list the trainer skills and teaching devices he would like to explore during the time periods scheduled for this activity.

During this workshop, there will be five Skills Practice Sessions of approximately two hours in length, at which time each participant may pursue any one of the available formats or another of his own choosing. The training staff will be available to assist in this process.

The following list contains a schedule of trainer skills and teaching devices for which formats and written materials have been designed. Regardless of which formats are chosen for exploration during the workshop, material on all eight formats will be included in Booklet B of the Guide for your interest and study.

SCHEDULE OF OPTIONS

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| Trainer Skills Option 1: | OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS |
| Trainer Skills Option 2: | INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK FLOW |
| Trainer Skills Option 3: | THE TRAINER AS CONSULTANT - THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP |
| Trainer Skills Option 4: | THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS |
| Trainer Skills Option 5: | OTHER (or further exploration of one of the above) |
| Teaching Devices Option 1: | AUDIO-VISUAL LEARNING |
| Teaching Devices Option 2: | NON-VERBAL TECHNIQUES |
| Teaching Devices Option 3: | SIMULATION |
| Teaching Devices Option 4: | ROLE PLAY |
| Teaching Devices Option 5: | Other (or further exploration of one of the above) |

DEVELOPING COMPETENCY MODELS

A - EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES * OF EXERCISE: To assess present competency in andragogy, training and specific job requirements

* To plan your curriculum for the development of training skills and experience with teaching devices

PROCEDURE:

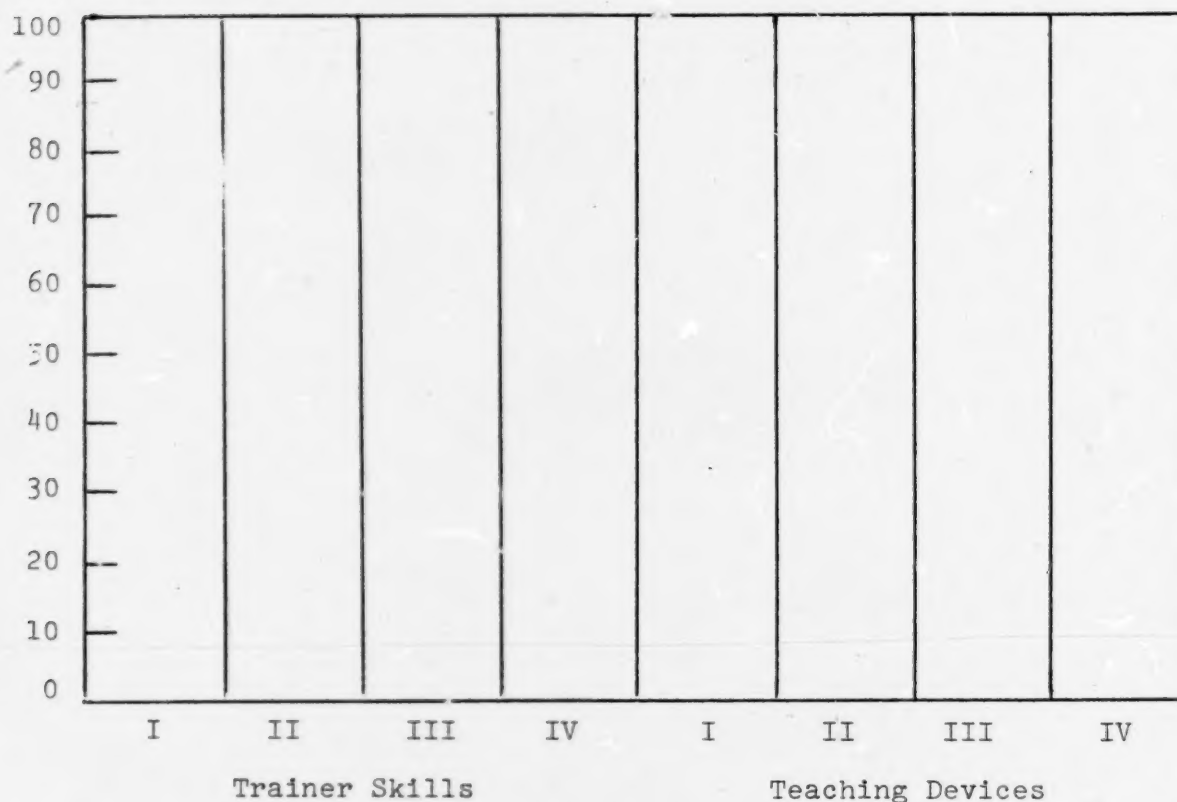
1. COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

After the training staff has given a brief introduction to andragogy, read pages 28-31 in Part One, Chapter 3, covering "competency models", as well as pages 1-10 in Chapter One, covering the andragogical process. On the scale below, rate your present level of competency in implementing the seven steps of the andragogical process.

100						
90						
80						
70						
60						
50						
40						
30						
20						
10						
0						
	Climate Setting	Developing Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs Interests and Values	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities
						Evaluation and Reassessment of Needs

2. COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

After the training staff has given a brief introduction to the trainer skills and teaching devices options offered in Booklet B, look at page 95, and on the scale below, rate your present proficiency in the eight areas listed.



3. PERSONAL COMPETENCY

In addition to competency in the process of adult education and in the skills and methods of training, every trainer himself has his own unique interests, needs, and job responsibilities. On the scale below, list seven important personal training interests and job-related skills you would like to further develop during the workshop. First rate your present proficiency and then estimate the degree of improvement you would like to result from this workshop. This model may serve as a basis for further evaluation at the end of the workshop.

100						
90						
80						
70						
60						
50						
40						
30						
20						
10						
0						

Present Proficiency _____
Goals for Workshop - - - - -

Using the above three competency models as a guide, please complete the Curriculum Schedule form to select the trainer skills and teaching methods you would like to explore during this Workshop. This form will provide direction to the training staff for the scheduling of the next four and one-half Skills Practice Sessions.

CURRICULUM SCHEDULE

Please select FIVE options. You may select the same one more than once if you wish or five different options. The scheduled times of Skills Practice Sessions are outlined on page 72. You may schedule your own learning program to meet your learning needs.

	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3	Session 4	Session 5
T.S.O.1					
T.S.O.2					
T.S.O.3					
T.S.O.4					
OTHER					
T.D.O.1					
T.D.O.2					
T.D.O.3					
T.D.O.4					
OTHER					

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION 1:
OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE IN GROUP MEMBERSHIP
AND LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION 1: OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE IN GROUP MEMBERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS

A - EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF EXERCISE:

- * To explore the dimensions of *task performance* and *group maintenance* in a working group
- * To learn the *functions* that any group member can perform to assist the group in accomplishing its work while simultaneously building group cohesion and satisfying individual needs
- * To introduce group dynamics and the importance of developing awareness of group processes

PROCEDURE:

The trainer begins with a short lecturette (approximately 10 minutes) on the various functions of group members and the two dimensions of group life (cf. Input Sheets (B) and (C)).

Two groups are created with four to ten persons each (depending on total group size). One group is selected as *observers* and go into another room to be briefed by the trainer regarding their observation worksheets (D) and (E). Half of the observers will use worksheet (D) - *Task Functions*, while the other half will use worksheet (E) - *Maintenance Functions*.

The other group is given data sheet (F) and asked to read it carefully and prepare to discuss it when the other group returns.

When the two groups rejoin, a "fishbowl" is created by having the discussion group sit in the inner circle while the observers sit around the outside.

After 10-15 minutes, action is stopped by the trainer and the positions of the two groups are switched so that the observers are in the inner circle. The observers will then discuss their findings.

After 10-15 minutes, action is again stopped and both groups are invited to make generalizations regarding what most aided and impeded the task performance and the maintenance building activity of the group. (Also, the original discussion group members may wish to clarify their own behaviors commented on by the observation teams.) The trainer will record these generalizations and learnings on newsprint. NOTE: During the workshop, this collation will be reproduced and distributed for inclusion in this section of the Booklet.

APPLICATION:

The subject matter discussed during the initial 10-15 minute segment can be a pertinent problem in which the group has a real life interest. In this case, the observation and fishbowl procedures can aid in clarifying the issues and processes involved.

(B) TASK, MAINTENANCE AND INDIVIDUAL DIMENSIONS OF GROUPS

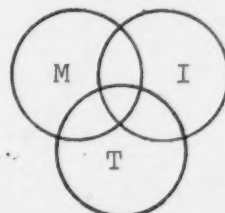
1. Every one of us from time to time finds ourselves in a group that has either been assigned a *task* or that assumes one. It is the desire of the group to move toward the accomplishment of its task.
2. This can only be done if the group is somewhat successful in *maintaining* the group as a group.
3. In addition, the group must, in some way, meet the needs of its *individual* members.
4. If the above three factors are accomplished effectively, the group will perform competently.

The "Task" (T) of a group has to do with the work of the group, while "Maintenance" (M) has to do with inter-relations of members within the group, and (I) has to do with the relationships between the group and the individual members.

It is obvious that the task is a very important aspect of group life and can never be regarded as incidental. On the other hand, for a group to accomplish its task, it must be kept together. Individuals in groups have personal needs for feeling accepted and being involved in decision making. In working on tasks, we can become insensitive to these and other needs being expressed verbally or symptomatically through the action of small groups within the work group. Our insensitivity results in the group's action being blocked. We then often become aware of the need to maintain the group or there may be no group to get the task done (or, if done, it will be done at the cost of reducing persons to the status of things). So we stand within the tension between specific, objective tasks for which the group exists and the important issue of caring for group members.

Within group life, certain leadership functions can be identified which help a group accomplish its task and maintenance functions. Some of these functions are performed by the designated leader, but they may also be performed *by the members*.

Groups are likely to operate at maximum effectiveness when all members perform both task (T) and maintenance (M) functions, and regard them as their responsibility rather than solely the responsibility of the designated leader.



(C) INPUT: CONTENT AND PROCESS LEVELS IN GROUPS

CONTENT: One may think of content as that material which the group is discussing, i.e., ideas, notions, proposals, opinions, facts, etc. -- *What* an efficient recording secretary would write.

PROCESS: One may think of process as the underlying factors which exist in a group situation, i.e., interpersonal relations, feelings, attitudes, mode of handling disagreement and agreement, general tone and climate --- *How* the group functions.

When we observe *what* the group is talking about, we are focusing on the *content*. When we try to observe how the group is handling its communication, i.e., who talks how much or who talks to whom, or what task and maintenance functions are being performed, we are focusing on group *process*.

Both of these dimensions are, of course, very important for successful group functioning. As one pursues a *content* level of discussion, it is helpful to notice the *process* by which such issues are handled. Recognizing these dynamics and skillfully utilizing them as group resources can greatly aid the performance of the group and increase the satisfaction of group members.

(D) WORKSHEET: TASK FUNCTIONS OBSERVATION SHEET

TASK FUNCTIONS	GROUP MEMBERS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. INITIATING - proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem, suggesting ideas.								
2. SEEKING INFORMATION - requesting facts, asking for expressions of opinion; seeking suggestions and ideas								
3. GIVING INFORMATION - offering facts, information, opinions, and ideas.								
4. CLARIFYING AND ELABORATING - interpreting ideas or suggestions, defining terms indicating alternatives.								
5. SUMMARIZING - pulling together related ideas; offering a decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject.								
6. CONSENSUS TESTING - sending up a trial balloon to test for a possible decision or conclusion.								

(E) WORKSHEET: MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS OBSERVATION SHEET

MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS

GROUP MEMBERS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. HARMONIZING - attempts to reconcile disagreements; reducing tensions.								
2. GATE KEEPING - helping to keep communication channels open; facilitating the participation of others.								
3. ENCOURAGING - being friendly, warm, and responsive to others; non-verbal or verbal approval or acceptance by expressions.								
4. COMPROMISING - admitting error; modifying in the interest of group cohesion or growth.								
5. STANDARD SETTING AND TESTING - testing whether group is satisfied with its procedures; pointing out explicit or implicit norms which have been set.								
6. SENSING AND EXPRESSING FEELINGS - sensing feeling, mood, relationships within the group; sharing own feelings with other members; Soliciting feelings of others.								

(F) DATA SHEET: DISCUSSION GROUP TOPIC

TOPIC: LEADERSHIP

I. In our society one concept of leadership stresses the responsibility of the individual as an appointed leader and the particular qualities that a leader needs to be effective, i.e., intelligence, aggressiveness, courageousness, charisma, logicity, etc. The personal traits of the leader and the way in which he uses them define the degree of effectiveness of the group.

II. Another concept of leadership stresses the functional aspects of the leader role. In this view, any or all members of a group can perform leadership functions such as initiating ideas, summarizing, coordinating, etc. This emphasis stresses the importance of leadership actions rather than personality of the leader.

TASK:

The task of your group is to discuss the above concepts of leadership and within the allotted time, arrive at a group decision on three advantages and disadvantages for group effectiveness implied by each concept.

(G) GROUP COLLATION SHEET

(This sheet will be reproduced following the exercise. It will contain the generalizations and learnings about group processes which the participants share at the conclusion of this experience.)

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION II:
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK FLOW

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION II: INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK FLOW

A - EXERCISE

- GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF EXERCISE:
- * To explore the influence of *perception* and *conditioning* on communication.
 - * To explore the dynamics of two-person communication flow.
 - * To experience the helpful and hindering aspects of communication.
 - * To experiment in giving and receiving feedback.
 - * To assess the effect of feedback on communication.

PROCEDURE:

The trainer may find it helpful to begin by soliciting definitions of *communication* and *feedback*. Also, a short lecturette may be helpful in describing the interconnection of these two processes (cf. Input Sheets B and C.)

PHASE 1 - PERCEPTION, CONDITIONING AND LEADERSHIP

The group is divided into two equal halves facing each other on opposite sides of the room. Standing between the groups, the trainer will show slightly different picture to each group (pictures D and E). As he does this, he will say,

"You will be given one minute to study this picture. Try to memorize as much of it as possible so that you can discuss it in detail later on."

After a minute or so, one person will be asked to volunteer from each side of the room. The volunteer will sit facing picture (f). They will then be asked to discuss this picture (which is a composite of pictures D and E) and describe to each other what they see.

As they begin to communicate with each other, they will gradually come to realize differences in their mutual perceptions, conditioned by their one minute exposure to differing pictures. Volunteers may switch several times during this phase to provide a variety of different styles, blocks, and problems of communication. During this time, the trainer will ask the larger group to observe what is helping or hindering the communication flow of the volunteers in the middle.

After several conversations, when the members come to "see" both figures, the action will be stopped and both the original pictures will be shown to both groups.

PHASE II - COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK

At this point, volunteers will be sought from both sides of the room totaling half of the total group (but not more than 10 people) and will form into a fishbowl seating arrangement. The members of the outer group can be paired off with a member of the inner group for whom they will serve as personal observers. Observers will face their partners.

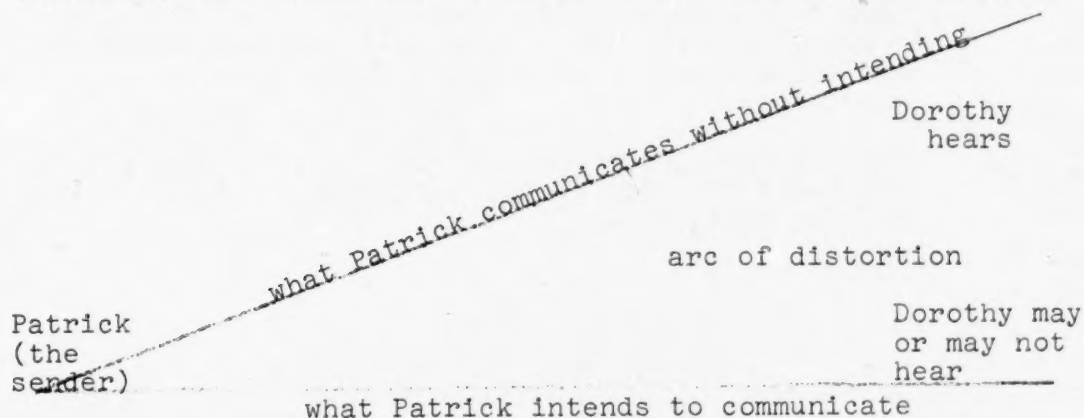
The inner group is asked to decide on the five most prominent helping and hindering actions they observed in the previous two-person communications about the pictures. The time limit for this part of the exercise is 20 minutes. After about 10 minutes has elapsed, a time out can be called so the observers can spend five minutes with their partner in the fishbowl, giving feedback on his style of communication. The action will then resume for another 10 minutes and will then be repeated with the outside group now in the fishbowl.

As a final summation, the group will assess what kinds of feedback were valuable and what kinds were not and record their finds on newsprint.

(B) INPUT: INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Interpersonal communication, whether in a group setting or in a two-person exchange, involves some very complex dynamics. By *communication*, we mean the sending of a message (either verbal or non-verbal) by one party to another who responds according to how he perceives the message. In a group, several intentions may be working at the same time. People may be sending different messages while there are a variety of perceptions forming about those same messages. Let us first look at a familiar two-person communication:

Patrick wishes to tell Dorothy how much he admires her new dress. He says to her, "My, what a luxurious dress. It really makes you look slim and gorgeous." Dorothy hears two messages, however--one, that Patrick likes the dress and, also, that she does not generally appear to be gorgeous and slim. Patrick has clouded his communication (we will assume unintentionally). The diagram below describes this encounter in terms of an "arc of distortion".



Other examples of the arc of distortion in communication may involve non-verbal signals which contradict the verbal statement (e.g., saying, "I'm not nervous", while your hands are shaking). The receiver of the message can also contribute to clouded communication. Taking the above sample again, Dorothy may take Patrick's comment, "My, what a luxurious dress, etc.," and hear a reprimand for spending too much money. By being conditioned from past conversations, or by feeling guilt over actually spending a lot, or for other reasons, Dorothy selectively attends to what she expects to hear. In this example, in addition to Patrick's intended and unintended communication, Dorothy read in still another meaning not even communicated by Patrick.

This process in groups is important to understand. Often people in groups talk on different levels of reality simultaneously, e.g., when members are talking about how badly group

meetings are in their job situation, they may actually be saying that they are dissatisfied with the immediate group they are in. These dynamics will be explored through the exercises in this Option.

Generally, if two-person and group communications are to be clear and effective, it is important that these basic conditions be present:

1. If the parties are open and flexible with their viewpoints, realizing that different people have different perceptions of reality and that their perceptions are real for them, even though they may be somewhat out of phase with reality, a trustful climate will probably begin to build.
2. If two-way communication--questions, clarifications, and comments flow back and forth, the receivers will be able to participate in the communications and maintain their attention and retention. In cases where there appears to be a real block in communication (e.g., an argument, for example). It is sometimes helpful for each party to repeat, in his own words, the prior comment made by the other party before continuing.
3. The more group members are able to give and receive *feedback*, the more the group communications processes will be facilitated.

(C) INPUT: FEEDBACK

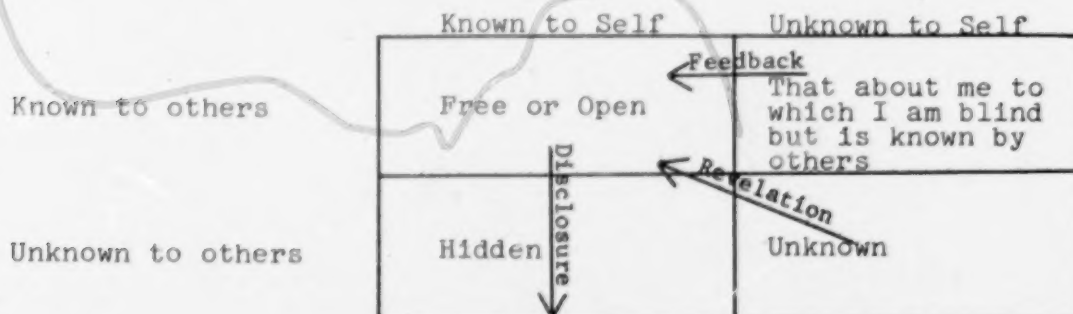
When a person responds to the sender of a message in such a way that he states how that message affected him, he is giving *feedback*. The ability to give as well as to receive feedback is an important skill for every adult learner.

The following principles are generalizations describing the components of effective feedback. Test them against your experience on the job, in your personal life, and in respect to your workshop experiences:

1. Feedback should not be *forced* or *imposed* on someone. When the receiver of feedback feels threatened he does not learn but tends rather to be defensive. A mutual trust atmosphere is needed for feedback to be effective.
2. Feedback is the perception of a person's *behavior* and therefore should not be given as the computed motive or actual intention of the person. Feedback is neither right nor wrong in itself, but rather the way a person comes across to you. This perception of another's behavior needs to be confirmed by that person's own intentions and also checked out with other group members' perceptions.
3. Feedback should be clear, specific and related to the "data" i.e., to actual incidents, examples, and observations of behavior. Judgements of a person's personality traits or vague generalizations are to be avoided.
4. Feedback should be descriptive and useful while leaving the receiver free to use or not use your information, as he sees fit.

JOHARI WINDOW

The Johari Window is a diagram originally created by Joe Luft and Harry Ingham, who first used it at an information session at the Western Training Lab in Group Development (1955). It provides a helpful model for looking at what kind of information we mean when we talk about feedback.



If we take the entire diagram as a representation of the SELF, the *Free* area is one which is known to both ourselves and others; the area we normally share in interaction.

The *Hidden* area contains those behaviors, motivations, feelings and ideas which are known to us but which we keep away from others. This is our inner world. Sometimes, disclosure of this area can aid and improve our relations and communication with others.

The *Blind* area contains that which is known and observed by others but for a variety of reasons remains unknown or unobserved by ourselves, e.g., certain gestures, mannerisms, and tones of voice, etc.

The *Unknown* area contains all the unconscious motivations, hidden traits and talents which neither ourselves nor others yet know or observe.

FEEDBACK is the way others open up for us the *Blind* area of our SELF. If offered effectively and responsibly, it can help us learn about our effect on others as well as help develop our own knowledge of SELF, our identity and style of interaction.

DISCLOSURE is a free decision on our part to share part of our *Hidden* and intimate self with others.

REVELATION refers to the slips of tongue or sudden illuminations which reveal something about our SELF which we never knew before. Such information can come from ourself or others.

The more our *Free* SELF coincides with our total SELF, the more integrated and clearly communicative and sharing we are. This does not mean, however, that all about us must be exposed or revealed. It does imply, however, that it is valuable to be aware of what we consciously hide from others and to be open and ready to accept new information about what is presently *Blind* to us. Feedback, then, has a crucial role in effecting clear communication and yields an additional bonus for our own personal growth.







(G) GROUP COLLATION SHEET

COMMUNICATION PROCESSES

Helps

Hinders

(H) OBSERVER WORKSHEET

1. Be sure you are facing your partner and can see his gestures, expressions, etc.
2. What functional roles is he performing--clarifying, initiating, supporting, harmonizing?
3. How is his style of communication--tone, phrasing, gestures, etc., contributing to or hindering his clarity and effectiveness?
4. How are others in the group reacting to your partner's contributions?
5. Do his nonverbal gestures conform to his verbal statements?
6. To whom does he mostly talk? To one other person? To persons who just previously talked. To the whole group? To no one?
7. What attitudes and emotions do you feel he is transmitting to the group? (Check out your own personal reactions to his comments.)

(I) GROUP COLLATION SHEET

TYPES OF FEEDBACK

Valuable and Useful

Not Useful or Valuable

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION III:
THE TRAINER AS CONSULTANT - THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION III: THE TRAINER AS CONSULTANT - THE HELP- ING RELATIONSHIP

A - EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF EXERCISE:

- * To learn the dynamics of the helping relationship
- * To practice giving, receiving and observing helpful consultation
- * To share and explore common training problems in a helpful climate

PROCEDURE:

The trainer begins with a brief introduction to the dynamics of the consultant's role and discusses with the group "the helping relationship" (cf. Input Sheets B and C).

The entire group is then divided into triads, each member of which will practice the role of consultant, client, and observer in three different interviews (cf. Instructional Sheets D,E,F).

The client presents a problem he has confronted either during the workshop or in his job situation while the consultant practices the helping relationship. The third member observes this interchange and during the final 10 minutes, he communicates to the other two what he has seen.

Following this initial interview, it might be helpful to call all the triads together and have a report from each about what was helpful and not helpful in the different interviews. Such a discussion can improve the next two interviews.

The second and third interviews are then held in separate triads with members switching roles so that all three get a chance at each of the roles.

The trainer can end this exercise by again soliciting the helps and hinderances that were observed and felt in the interviews and also spend some time evaluating the worth of the entire exercise.

(B) INPUT: THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

A teacher guides a pupil in the solving of a math problem; a parent advises his child on how to behave in front of visitors; a trainer consults with a client about the need for change in his agency--all of these events take place as *helping relationships*.

The trainer, as consultant, however, can be more clearly described according to:

- the quality of his help
- the nature of his relationship with the client
- his goals as a helper

A man on the street who gives a dime to the beggar is indeed helping; as is a teacher who corrects the false answer of a student. But the quality of this help consists of giving immediate assistance in relieving a particular symptom of the client's problem. The beggar, while "better off" for the dime, remains a beggar; the pupil, although knowing he was "wrong", is not really helped to find the right answer for himself. Such quick solutions tend to promote a dependent relationship on the consultant-helper and do not foster the client's growth and change to become more self-directing. It is precisely this latter dimension with which we are concerned when we talk about the trainer's role as consultant.

Carl Rogers, in his now classic article, "The Characteristics of a Helping Relationship", defines a helping relationship as one:

"in which at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, improved coping with life of the other. The other, in this sense, may be one individual or a group. To put it another way, a helping relationship might be defined as one in which one of the participants intends that there should come about, in one or both parties, more appreciation, more expression of, more functional use of the latent inner resources of the individual." (Rogers, 1961)

Let us sharply distinguish the trainer as consultant, then, from the man-on-the-street as a helper:

	<u>Man-on-Street</u>	<u>Trainer as Consultant</u>
Quality of Help	Immediate assistance. Reacts to symptoms. Gives short run solutions.	Transmits problem-solving skills to client

	<u>Man-on-the-Street</u>	<u>Trainer as Consultant</u>
Nature of Relationship	Dependency producing. Superior-subordinate relation. Sharp role differentiation.	Self-directing. Interdependent. Mutuality of respect. Fosters client's self-direction.
Goal of Interchange	Alleviates symptoms. Finds quick solutions.	Increases client's own problem finding and problem solving capability. Helps the development of client's resources to help himself.

It has been shown through research by Rogers (1961), Schein (1969), and Argyris (1970) that the consultant-client relationship is most valuable to both client and consultant when:

- the consultant is a voluntary, temporary helper to the client system
- the consultant has an acceptant-democratic attitude
- the consultant is an empathetic listener
- the client trusts the consultant and has a mutually respectful relationship with him
- the needs and motivations of the client and the consultant are sufficiently balanced and integrated so that a self-directing, self-actualizing climate is created

(C) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET - THE CLIENT

SUGGESTIONS:

1. Think of a situation or problem you confronted in the workshop or in your job situation which you would like to change or resolve. Select a problem which is of *real concern to you*.
2. In presenting the problem, try to be brief and specific. At the same time, indicate some of the symptoms and reasons for your concern.
3. After explaining the problem, give the consultant a chance to ask questions which may help you to clarify the situation and explore possible solutions.
4. You are the only one who knows of your unique problem. Try to realize this fact in your presentation. It may help you to communicate your problem more clearly.

(D) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET - THE CONSULTANT

SUGGESTIONS:

1. Your task is to help the client define, or perhaps redefine, his problem and his relationship to it in sufficiently specific terms so that he can see some ways to solve it.
2. Ideas:
 - a) How does the client see himself in the situation? What is his role and responsibility in the problem?
 - b) What seem to be the fundamental difficulties?
 - c) What solutions have been tried? With what results?
 - d) Who else might be concerned or involved in the situation or problem besides your client?
 - e) Are there any indications from the client's behavior that he may not see some aspects of his own involvement in the problem? If so, can he do something about his part in the solution?
3. Cautions:
 - a) Don't "Take over" the problem. Resist the possible temptation to say such things as, "The real problem seems to be", or, "You should do". Instead, help the client to gain insight by sharing your perceptions with him.
 - b) Don't disparage the problem. Resist the urge to say such things as, "We had the same problem and solved it this way. It's not difficult." The problem may be quite difficult for the client, and not having had your experience, he may not see the simplicity of your solution.
4. Guidelines:
 - a) Focus particularly on questions such as, Why? How do you know? What does this or that mean? How does that affect you?
 - b) Try to help the client focus on alternative options that he can employ rather than focusing on what others ought to do.

(E) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET - THE OBSERVER

SUGGESTIONS:

1. Your task is to observe and to listen as carefully as you can. Try to remain inconspicuous and to interfere as little as possible. When you make your remarks during the last ten minutes of the interview, comment briefly on what you saw taking place in such a way as to encourage the client and consultant to think and talk about your observation. Don't be a dogmatic interpreter.
2. Ideas:
 - a) Ask yourself often during the interview, "What is going on between the client and the consultant?"
 - b) How does the consultant go about establishing a relationship? Do his remarks help the client to speak freely?
 - c) How carefully do the client and the consultant listen to each other?
 - d) Do both client and consultant work through a definition of the problem and its causes before trying to think of solutions?
 - e) During the interview, try to locate the point at which the communication between the client and the consultant first begins to "click". When did they begin to get a handle on the problem? How did this come about?

(F) GROUP COLLATION SHEET

Each group will record the factors, dynamics, behaviors, or attitudes which proved valuable or not so valuable in developing the *helping relationship*. These group sheets will be reproduced during the workshop.

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION IV:
THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION IV: THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS

A- EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES * To increase one's understanding of the
OF EXERCISE: decision making process in groups

- * To practice diagnosing the facilitating and blocking behaviors involved in this process

PROCEDURE:

The trainer begins by introducing the topic of decision-making in groups and asks for definitions of the term "decision". One other way of beginning this exercise is to call for a volunteer group of 8-10 members and ask them to make a decision on a particular topic before any discussion. This can provide a free-wheeling trial run in exploring the subject in which this initial discussion can be compared to subsequent ones.

The trainer then divides the group into two equal halves of which one half becomes a decision making group, while the other half become observers. The task group receives Instructional Sheet (D) while the observers are separately briefed on the use of Observation Worksheets E and F. The groups form a fishbowl with the decision-makers in the middle.

After the first decision making task is completed, the trainer gives a brief description of the sheets which the observers were using and then solicits general comments from those observers. Their findings are compared with those from the first exercise.

The trainer then switches the roles of the two groups, giving the new decision making group (former observers) Instructional Sheet G while the observing team (former decision-makers) use the Worksheets. After this phase is completed, the comments of the observers are again solicited and this third discussion is compared with the previous two. Has there been any improvement? Did it make any difference when the last decision-making group was familiar with the steps of decision making, having previously observed two groups operate without it?

The final discussion serves to evaluate this exercise, especially stressing the degree of improvement in the participants' diagnostic abilities and facilitating behaviors.

In contrast to the blocking factors which often obstruct group decision making, there are also certain other factors which have been shown to facilitate this process. Aside from the reverse of the above blocks, there are additional factors such as:

- a clear definition of the problem
- a clear understanding of who has what degree of responsibility
- an effective means for producing and communicating ideas
- an appropriate size group for the particular decision to be made
- an effective means for testing alternative solutions
- an effective means for implementing the decision
- a commitment of the designated leader to the group decision making process
- an agreement on the decision making procedures prior to deliberation on the issue

(B) INPUT: THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS

As a trainer dealing with diverse clients, you undoubtedly confront the task of making group decisions. Some groups tend to break down when confronted with a decision for which a consensus is required. Others get bogged down in the interminable discussion of minor points or irrelevant side issues. Still others seek escape from their anxiety in Robert's Rules of Order, voting, or the "chairman".

Dr. Kenneth Benne (1960) has analyzed the prevalent reasons for the difficulty groups have in making decisions and recognizes the following six *blocks* to decision making in groups.

1. *Conflicting Perception of the Situation*

If group members view the problem at hand in different ways, communication can be impeded, resulting in a breakdown of the group (cf. Trainer Skills Option II - Perception and Communication).

2. *Fear of Consequences*

The possible outcomes of an impending decision can overwhelm a group. Outside pressures on individuals or on the entire group may exert a paralyzing effect on its ability to come to a decision.

3. *Conflicting Loyalties*

Every group member belongs to a number of different groupings than the one he may presently be engaged in. These multiple memberships can operate as hidden agendas or conflicting pressures within the decision making group.

4. *Interpersonal Conflict*

Personal differences or personality clashes can provoke defensiveness, antipathy, and biased discussion, preventing a sound, fair decision from being made.

5. *Methodological Rigidity*

Many groups are so frozen into Robert's Rules of Order or similar rigid methods for decision making that they are prevented from inventing or using other methods when the nature of the decision calls for one (e.g., consensus).

6. *Inadequate Leadership*

When the entire group does not *share* the leadership functions and relies too heavily on a designated leader (who may or may not be sufficiently skilled), then no group decision can be made and the commitment and responsibility to any decision is lessened.

(C) INPUT: TYPES OF DECISIONS

<i>PLOPS</i>	A decision suggested by an individual to which there is no response (e.g., "I suggest we shelve this question." silence).
<i>SELF-AUTHORIZATION</i>	A decision made by an individual who assumes authority (e.g., "I think we should all write our ideas on the blackboard.", and proceeds to be the first to do so).
<i>THE HANDCLASP</i>	A decision made by two or more members of the group who join forces or decide the issue in advance (e.g., "That was a helpful comment, John. Yes, that's the course we're going to take.").
<i>BAITING</i>	A decision made by pressure not to disagree (e.g., "No one objects, do they?"), or a decision made by pressure to agree (e.g., "We all agree, don't we?").
<i>MAJORITY RULE</i>	A decision made by some form of voting.
<i>UNANIMITY</i>	A decision made by overt and unanimous consent, often without discussion.
<i>POLLING</i>	A decision made by a form of voting which inquires, "Let's see where everyone stands.", and then proceeds to tabulate the already expressed majority decision.
<i>CONSENSUS</i>	A decision made after allowing all aspects of the issue, both positive and negative, to be put forth to the degree that everyone openly agrees it is probably the best decision. This is not necessarily unanimity, but it constitutes a basic agreement by all group members.

(D) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET

Group Decision-Making Task:

In the 30 minutes allotted to you, discuss and decide as a group on the most logical and effective steps or phases a group should go through in making a decision. Prepare a list of these steps.

In your discussion of the steps, keep in mind the illustrative example of this problem: "What are the five most important responsibilities of a trainer working with small groups."

REMEMBER: Your task is NOT to solve this problem or decide on the content of this example, but rather to decide on what steps or phases a group should pass through in order to solve this problem *if* they tried.

(E) GROUP DECISION MAKING

Phases	Processes	Blocks	Facilitating Roles	Methods
1. DEFINE THE PROBLEM	Clarifying; Data Gathering; Recognizing Limitations.	Over-generalality, Conflicting Perceptions; Unrealistic Tasks.	Elaborator; Clarifier; Data Gatherer.	Problem Census, Buzz Groups.
2. DEVELOP ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS	Getting Ideas; Building Models; Listing Resources; Checking Needs, Interests and Values of Group Members.	Lack of Data; Vested Interests.	Initiator; Gatekeeper.	Brainstorming.
3. TEST ALTERNATIVES	Examining Alternatives with Respect to Data, Past Experience with the Problem at Hand and the Attitudes of Group Members.	Premature Deciding; Vagueness of Criteria; Conflicting Loyalties; Pressure of Time or Faction.	Reality-tester; Evaluator.	Role Play; Case or Critical Incident Methods; Fantasy; Comparing Extremes.
4. DECIDE	Choosing one of the Alternatives.	Fear of Consequences; Methodological Rigidity.	Compromiser; Summarizer.	Vote, Consensus, etc.
5. TEST FOR RESPONSIBILITY, LOYALTY, CONSENSUS	Linking the above Group Decision with Individual Interests, Needs and Values.	Non-participation; Ram-rod-ding.	Gatekeeper; Group Implementation of Maintenance Functions.	Seeking Consensus.
6. FIRM THE DECISION	Reaching Group Consensus with Individual Commitment. Allowing Holdouts more time by regarding decision as tentative until their issues are resolved.	Non-participation; Ram-rod-ding.	Summarizer; Organizer.	Recording Firm Statement of Decision.

(E) GROUP DECISION MAKING

Phases	Processes	Blocks	Facilitating Roles	Methods
<i>Additional Steps, if Relevant:</i> 7. DEVELOP A PLAN OF ACTION	Distribute Roles; Make Provisions for Execution.	Lack of Responsibility and Commitment; Inequitable Rewards.	Implementer; Organizer.	Divide into Sub-groups, Role Play; Work Groups; Design Groups.
8. ASSESS RESULTS - EVALUATE	Allow for the Replanning of the Decision in Light of its Effects; Re-assess Needs at this Point.	Fear of Failure; Defensiveness.	Evaluator; Reality Tester.	Surveys; Questionnaires; Revised Competency Model.

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(2) OBSERVATION SHEET

Phases	Processes	Blocks	Facilitating Roles
1. DEFINE THE PROBLEM	Clarifying the Focus; Recognizing Limitations.		
2. DEVELOP ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS	Getting Ideas; Building Models; Listing Resources; Checking Needs, Interests and Values of Group Members.		
3. TEST ALTERNATIVES	Examining Alternatives with Respect to Data, the Past Experience with the Problem at hand and the Attitudes of Group Members.		
4. DECIDE	Choosing one of the Alternatives.		
5. TEST FOR RESPONSIBILITY, LOYALTY, CONSENSUS	Linking the above Group Decision with Individual Interests, Needs and Values.		
6. FIRM THE DECISION	Reaching Group Consensus with Individual Commitment, Allowing Holdouts more time by regarding decision as tentative until their issues are resolved.		
<i>Additional Steps, if Relevant:</i>	Distribute Roles; Make Provisions for Execution.		
7. DEVELOP A PLAN OF ACTION			
8. ASSESS RESULTS - EVALUATE	Allow for the Replanning of the Decision in Light of its Effects; Needs at this Point.		

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(G) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET

Group Decision-Making Task:

In the 20 minutes allotted to you, discuss and decide as a group the five most important responsibilities of a trainer working with small groups.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION V

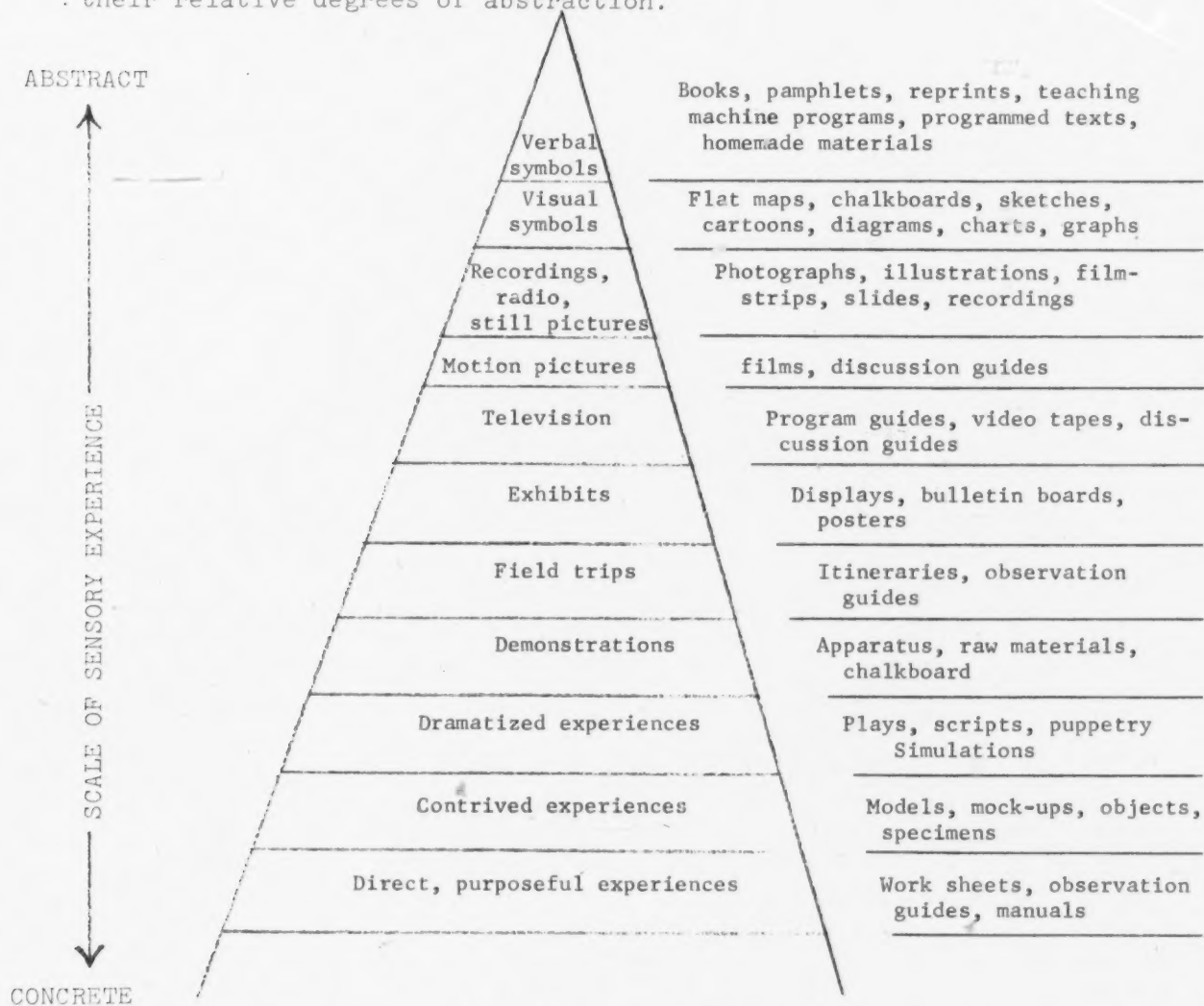
TEACHING DEVICES OPTION I:
AUDIO VISUAL LEARNING

(A) AUDIO-VISUAL PRESENTATION

Participants of the workshop will experience a multi-media presentation of an andragogical learning activity. This presentation will also emphasize the potential of audio-visual aids in the training enterprise.

(B) INPUT:

Films, slides, tape recorders, video tape cameras, chalkboard, newsprint, overhead projectors are all examples of audio-visual aids. In general, they provide a sensual focus to training providing the audience with a common experience, problem, or topic which can be integrated into a learning design. Such devices should not be used merely because they are available or as gimmicks. Dr Knowles' cone of experience (Knowles, 1970) is helpful in comparing audio-visual aids in relation to their relative degrees of abstraction.



As can be seen above, audio visual aids are more abstract and less concrete and involving than other more experiential techniques or devices.

C. EXAMPLES OF USES FOR AUDIO VISUAL AIDS

1. Video-tape

The new advances in video tape equipment make this aid an invaluable observation tool for analyzing and improving group work. Meetings can be recorded and played back for diagnosis and replays can be obtained to look at individual verbal and non-verbal behavior. The tapes can stop the action at any point for comment and discussion.

2. Instructional Films

There are many excellent training films available today which are useful in stimulating further inquiry, opening up particular topics, and as input material to supplement experiential practice and discussion.

3. Tape-recording

This method provides a verbatim record of a group's discussion progress and development. Tapes can be edited to focus on particular problems for analysis and observation. They can also be used for research on group activity. There are many other uses including supplementary data input.

4. Newsprint, overhead projectors, chalkboards

These devices make possible the immediate visual presentation of data, ideas, models, diagrams, and can easily be erased or supplemented as the need arises. When collecting reports or collating learnings after an exercise, use of these devices can be very helpful. They are also helpful in recording data produced by groups so individual members can see their own contributions and be reminded of the valuable contributions of others.

5. Self-drawings; Group-drawings

At times, having individuals draw a picture or design of themselves or having members of a group symbolically or graphically picture their feelings about their group can stimulate a highly suggestive and intriguing discussion into self-identity, group membership, emotional interaction and group development. Such discussion can aid the group or individual in integrating his learning with his feelings and interpersonal relations. Trainer skill is important when using this technique.

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION II:
NON-VERBAL TECHNIQUES

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION II: NON-VERBAL TECHNIQUES

(A) EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF EXERCISE:

- * To experience several non-verbal techniques.
- * To assess the value of the non-verbal dimension in training.
- * To gain some skill in the appropriate use of non-verbals in training.

Procedure:

Members who choose this option will first experience a body-movement exercise that will familiarize participants with a range of non-verbal techniques. (Descriptions of these exercises cannot be given here in written form without risking loss of learning value.)

A discussion will follow this phase emphasizing the effects of these exercises and exploring their use in training.

Following the discussion, participants will experience an integrated fantasy using non-verbal and multi-media techniques.

An additional discussion will be held regarding the emotional and sensory development dimensions of training.

(B) INPUT: NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Since we were children, we have learned and have been taught to control our body movements, gestures, facial expressions and hand signals. Such actions were often considered uncultured, or indicative of poor self control. We have learned to speak clearly and logically and to listen quietly and without movement. Such behavior tends to suppress emotional involvement.

Today, we are becoming more aware of our bodies and our emotions and the unique expressivity they hold. Much of our communication with others is in fact non-verbal -- a shake of the head, a smile, a frown, the way we dress, walk, and sit. In working with adults in training, it is important to be aware of body language and help in freeing up emotional expression. "The medium is the message"; we are constantly sending non-verbal and emotional messages whether we are aware of them or not.

Because of the long neglect of non-verbal language, this method of communication needs to be re-learned. The spontaneity and ease of movement in the child can be regained in adulthood. The exercises in this option are intended to open up the area of non-verbal communication as an important dimension of training.

Some Functional Uses of Non-Verbal Techniques in Training

1. To help set climate at the beginning of a training program.
2. To deal with relationships in the training group which are not reaching the verbal level (e.g., latent hostility, mixed messages).
3. To express personal feelings and help in getting in touch with unnamed feelings which are affecting participants.
4. To determine where the group is at present (e.g., A pictorial drawing of the group can reveal the degree of trust, cooperation and cohesiveness of the group.).
5. To help integrate person, learning and environment.

Some Normative Standards for Using Non-Verbal
Techniques

1. Avoid conducting non-verbal exercises with which you are unfamiliar or uncomfortable.
2. The non-verbal exercise should be timely and integrated with the experience it seeks to explore or discover. The non-verbal exercise should arise from the participants' verbal experience and not be imposed, i.e., it must be called forth by the situation.
3. All non-verbals should be reflected on without haste. Time is generally needed for participants to ventilate feelings generated from the experience.
4. Avoid judging the experience as right or wrong or feelings of participants as good or bad. A more important issue is, "What is the data produced by the experience?"

(C) INPUT: TECHNIQUES

Some Useful Non-Verbal Techniques

1. DRAWING SELF - Each person draws a picture of himself on a piece of paper, showing how he feels about himself in the group. Objective: To help groups deal with personal involvement; to increase leveling, participation, and relationships. Variation: Each person draws a picture of his conception of the group.
2. BREAKING IN - The group forms a circle and locks arms. The person who has felt "out" of the group - not a full member - is asked to break into the circle. Objective: To help a person become a member; to open the topic of group membership. Variation: Breaking out for persons who feel overly controlled and confused by the group.
3. IDENTIFICATION - A random selection of objects (e.g., spring, box, statue, pen, etc.) are put in the middle of a group. Each person is asked to feel and handle the objects and choose the one he most identifies with. The group then discusses the choices. Objective: To facilitate personal disclosure and heighten self-awareness in the group.
4. BLIND WALK - Members pair off. One member is blindfolded and led by another. The leader has the responsibility for providing a learning experience for the blindfolded one. The roles are then reversed. Objective: To promote trust and cooperation and to explore the feelings of dependency.
5. EYE COMMUNICATION - Members stand in a circle with one person beginning and others following at a comfortable pace. Each person looks into the eyes of each person around the circle, exploring and communicating in whatever manner desired. There will be two exchanges: one as transmitter and the other as receiver. Objective: To provide an opportunity for interpersonal confrontation, and insight about self as well as others; to contribute to group cohesiveness.

(D) EVALUATION SHEET

1. Which of the non-verbal experience(s) was most comfortable for you? Why?
2. In which of the non-verbal experience(s) were you the least comfortable? Why?
3. What advantages and what disadvantages can you see in using non-verbal techniques in your own training activities?
4. What personal learning resulted from your experiences with non-verbals and fantasy?
5. Other comments

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION III:
SIMULATION

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION III: SIMULATION

(A) EXERCISE

- General Objectives of Exercise*
- * To experience the *Hollow Square Simulation Game*
 - * To explore the relationship between *planning, operating, personal interaction and task accomplishment*

Procedure:

The trainer begins with a brief description of *simulation* (cf. Input B) in general and the *Hollow Square Game* in particular. The group is divided into Planners (4), Operators (4), and Observers (cf. Instructional Sheets C, D, E, F).

After the simulation is completed, a feedback discussion will be conducted with the Observers, followed by a report from the Planners and Operators.

A Group Collation Sheet (Sheet G) can then be constructed from these discussions, identifying the problems that occur when the group makes plans that another group has to implement; when Operators carry out the plans others make for them.

(B) INPUT: SIMULATION

A SIMULATION is any integrated model which symbolically re-enacts a real-life situation. Today, simulations are primarily being constructed and used to depict mechanical and social systems. These symbolizations provide an experimental setting in which it is possible to learn the complex dynamics, roles and relationships involved in such systems.

As trainers, we are involved in helping people function more effectively within their organizational and social environments. Also, we are concerned with aiding organizations and systems to have that kind of climate which facilitates the personal growth and fulfillment of its members. Simulations can be a valuable teaching device for both of these goals.

By being experimental and symbolic, simulations provide settings where alternative behaviors can be tested without risking the unwanted consequences of real-life situations. By encapsulating time periods and complex organizational structures into workable training dynamics, simulations provide participants with a deeper perspective and understanding of their environment.

The following considerations may be helpful in your own construction and use of simulation materials in training:

1. Simulations need to be appropriate to the clearly defined needs of the participants and the training objectives of your program. The value of a simulation is its incorporation of actual dynamics, roles, problems, and needs into a "game" environment.
2. Simplicity of construction and execution is necessary so that the simulation is not more complex than the reality it symbolizes, yet not so simple as to prevent participants from generating real emotion and reactions during play. In a similar way, simulations need to be close enough to reality so that the relevance and importance of the play is realized, yet not so close as to arouse threat or cloud learning.

- | | | |
|------------|--|---------|
| a. complex | involvement with
clarity and interest | simple |
| b. reality | relevance without
threat | fantasy |

*"Game" is here used figuratively. In the literature, "game" is distinguished from "simulation". A game usually involves a winner(s) and a loser(s) engaged in competitive play. While simulation may include a game within its structure and hence be called a "simulation game", a pure simulation is a representation of a social system and does not involve gaming.

3. The actual design of your learning format, utilizing simulation, should include:

- * definitions and descriptions of the initial setting, organization, conditions and roles of the simulated environment,
- * enough information to the participants for them to understand the relationship and dynamics which are the focus of the learning and to make decisions and plans during play, but not so much as to make the dynamics obvious.
- * a structure encompassing all the elements, subgroups, and roles of the simulation, allowing for interactions and inter-group competition and/or cooperation,
- * rules and conditions which define the limits of the behavior allowed in the simulation,
- * materials to vary or complicate the play, allowing the optimum of flexibility in the simulation,
- * a method of feedback during play to enable participants to modify their behaviors when applicable and learn from their experience, and,
- * evaluation to formulate the learnings generated during play and to relate the simulation to the realities it symbolized.

(C) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET - PLANNERS

Each of you will be given a packet containing cardboard pieces which, when properly assembled, will make a hollow square design.

YOUR TASK

During a period of 35 minutes you are to do the following:

1. Plan how the 18 pieces distributed among you should be assembled to make the design.
2. Instruct your operating team on how to implement your plan (you may begin instructions to the Operating Team at any time during the 45 minute period -- but no later than 5 minutes before they are to begin the assembling process.)

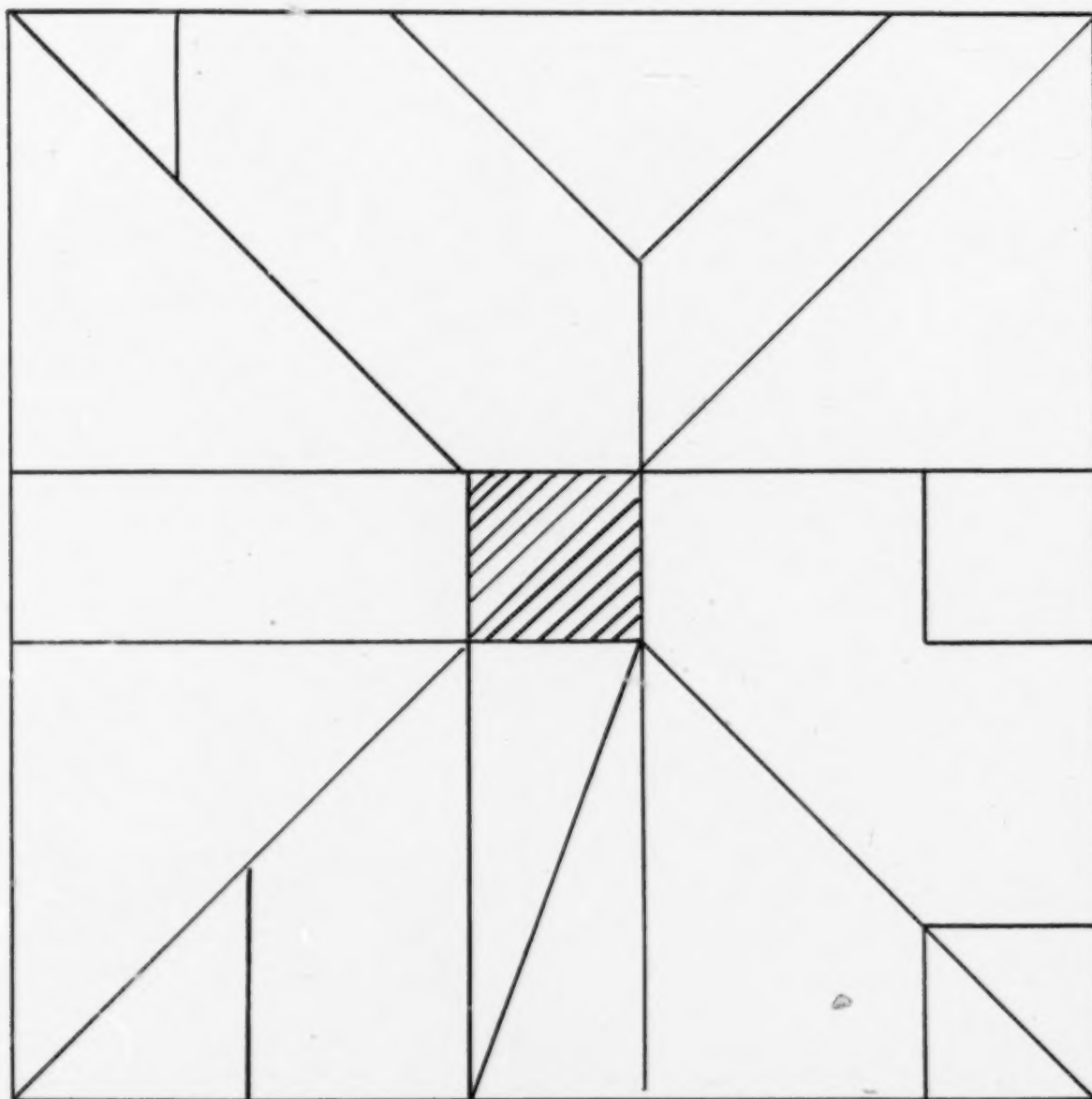
GENERAL RULES

1. You must keep all pieces you have in front of you at all times.
2. You may not touch pieces of other members of your team nor trade them during the planning or instructing phase.
3. You can not assemble the entire square at any time (this is to be left to your operating team).
4. You can not show Instruction Sheet D to the Operating Team at any time.
5. Members of your Operating Team must also observe the above rules until the signal is given to begin the assembling.
6. When time is called for your Operating Team to begin assembling the pieces, you may give no further instructions, but are to observe the operation.

(D) Planners

ASSEMBLED PATTERN

(18 pieces)



This diagram is not to be shown to the operating team.

(E) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET - OPERATORS

1. You will have the responsibility for carrying out a task for 4 people according to instructions given by your planning team. Your planning team may call you in for instructions at any time. If they do not summon you before _____, you are to report to them anyway. Your task is scheduled to begin promptly at _____, after which no further instructions from your planning team can be given. You are to finish the assigned task as rapidly as possible.

During the period when you are waiting for a call from your Planning Team, it is suggested that you discuss and make notes on the following:

- a. The feelings and concerns which you experience while waiting for instructions for the unknown task.
- b. Your suggestions on how a person might prepare to receive instructions.

The notes recorded on the above will be helpful during the work group discussion following the completion of your task.

(F) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET - OBSERVERS

You will be observing a situation in which a Planning Team decides how to solve a problem and gives instructions to an Operating Team for implementation. The problem consists of assembling 18 pieces of cardboard into the form of a hollow square. The Planning Team is supplied with the general layout of the pieces. This team is not to assemble the parts itself but is to instruct the Operating Team on how to assemble the parts in a minimum amount of time. You will be *silent observers* throughout the process.

Suggestions for Observation

1. Each member of the Observing Team should watch the general pattern of communications but give special attention to one member of the Planning Team (during the planning phase) and one member of the Operating Team (during the assembling period).
2. During the Planning Period watch for such behavior as:
 - a. The evenness or unevenness of participation among Planning Team members.
 - b. Behavior that blocks or facilitates understanding.
 - c. How the Planning Team divides its time between planning and instructing (how early does it invite the Operating Team to come in).
 - d. How well it plans its procedure for giving instructions to the Operating Team.
3. During the Instructing Period (when the Planning Team is instructing the Operating Team) watch for such things as:
 - a. Who in the Planning Team gives the instructions (and how was this decided?)
 - b. How is the Operating Team oriented to the task?
 - c. What assumptions made by the Planning Team are not communicated to the Operating Team?
 - d. How full and clear were the instructions?
 - e. How did the Operating Team members react to the instructions?
 - f. Did the Operating Team feel free to ask questions of the Planners?
4. During the Assembly Period (when the Planning Team is instructing the Operating Team) watch for such things as:
 - a. Evidence that instructions were clearly understood or misunderstood.
 - b. Non-verbal reactions of Planning Team members as they watch their plans being implemented or distorted.

(G) GROUP COLLATION SHEET

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION IV:
ROLE PLAY

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION IV: ROLE PLAY

(A) EXERCISE

General Objectives of Exercise: * To experience and learn role-play technique

* To practice self-learning using this technique

Procedure:

The trainer briefs the total group on the techniques of role-play (cf. Input B).

One half of the group volunteers to be the planning and role-play group. The other half will be observers.

The planning group is given 15 minutes to select a problem situation and the roles they will play. While they are doing this, the trainer briefs the observers on the two observer worksheets (cf. Sheet C & D). Half the observers will use Sheet C and will concentrate on role diagnosis. The other observers are given the roles being played and will concentrate on group processes.

Once the role-play is performed and the observers have reported, the observing team is asked to switch roles or situations in ways which will increase group understanding. Another role-play is then held with the former players observing the differences.

A final general discussion is directed toward assessing the uses of role play in training (cf. Sheet E).

(B) INPUT - ROLE PLAY

Role-play is the unrehearsed acting out of a situation, relationship or dynamic in which individuals assume designated roles.

As a technique, role-play is especially useful in:

- illustrating interpersonal problems
- increasing understanding of different perspectives and role functions
- testing alternative behaviors
- gaining insight into attitudes and behavior
- learning new skills
- involving participants in self-learning

Role-play can be a rich resource for learning when used appropriately and conducted effectively. In designing your own role play exercises, it is helpful to keep in mind the following considerations:

1. Have a clearly defined problem in mind which you would like to investigate and portray.
2. Decide on what essential dynamics of the problem you wish to focus. Role-play works most effectively when the problem is well defined and the dynamics are clearly identifiable.
3. Visualize the role play as it will unfold to portray social situations and perspectives.
4. Define each role carefully giving enough information to participants for them to get a "feel of the part" but not so much as to overly stereotype it or to prevent the participants from getting involved in it.
5. Steps for conducting role-play exercise:
 - a. Brief each role-player
 - b. Act out the role-play
 - c. Video tape the portrayal for later replay and diagnosis
 - d. Re-play after an initial evaluation
 - e. Analyze and interpret the data

(C) OBSERVER'S INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET

Listen to the interaction and discussion for a few minutes and then describe the roles you see being performed in the group. Describe each role below and at the end of the role-play, suggest what helpful behaviors or attitudes would have facilitated the group process.

MEMBER I:

MEMBER II:

MEMBER III.

MEMBER IV:

MEMBER V:

(D) OBSERVER'S INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET

The role-play group which you are observing is made up of the following roles:

ROLE I:

ROLE II:

ROLE III:

ROLE IV:

ROLE V:

Observe how these roles interact in the discussion.

What are the process blocks?

Who is maintaining the group?

Who is leading the task accomplishment of the group?

What roles or functions are missing for a more effective discussion?

(E) EVALUATION

1. Which of the roles seemed most believable and authentic?
Why?
2. How did you feel in your role?
3. What did you learn about the content material of the role
play?
4. Assess the effectiveness of the role-play technique as a
way of exploring and examining the problem under study.

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION V

BOOKLET C
DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING ADULT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

BOOKLET C: DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING ADULT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Introduction

At the core of the trainer's responsibility are the skills of planning and effectively implementing one's own training activities. This skill consists of the ability to sensitively assess the needs of the client system and to help the client system translate those needs into training objectives and program formats.

The skill of "designing" and "implementing" one's own learning activity is also an art (cf. Part One, Ch. 5) which generally means that as one learns and practices the procedures and processes of planning and executing training programs, one also needs to internalize those processes as part of one's own intuitive mode of operating. If training activities are to be effective, humanly fulfilling, and aesthetically integrated, the trainer needs to "own" the process as well as the content of what he does; his designs, programs, and actions need to arise not just from his knowledge of "how to", but also from an inner sense of timing, process, rhythm and balance.

This may seem at first to be quite demanding, but these skills can be learned with practice and experimentation. The more one designs andragogical formats, the more deeply one comes to *own* and live the process and the more effective and integrated are one's designs. As trainers in the field, you have undoubtedly had the experience of a particular design "clicking", where everything seemed to fall naturally into place. This dimension of the workshop is intended to examine and practice the dynamics involved in designing such successful programs.

Workshop Instructions

The Design Groups (D-groups) are meant to provide the opportunity to experimentally live this andragogical process by designing and implementing one's own training activity for the total workshop population. The task of these D-groups will be to choose one of the expressed goals/interests of the workshop population (cf. Group Collation Sheet - INTERESTS) and design a one-hour training activity, following andragogical methodology, for implementation before the total workshop community. The D-groups will have two scheduled meeting times on Day 2 and Day 3, for design (more time may be used by any group during their free time at their own option) and implementation will start Day 3 and continue as scheduled through Day 4. The resources available to each D-group in their planning and execution include the following:

- * The staff trainers of the workshop will function as Resource Consultants for all groups when called upon at the initiation of each D-group.
- * Part One of this Guide: ANDRAGOGY - CONCEPTS FOR ADULT LEARNING, will be in your hands as a background guide from which to operate.
- * Skills Practice Sessions held on Days 2 and 3 will provide skills, ideas, formats and devices for your adaptation and audio-visual equipment will also be available to you.
- * In addition to the Group Collation Sheet - INTERESTS, each D-group will also receive the following handouts on design.

The Designing Process

The following steps present a general procedural outline of the flow of a design and may be helpful in your groups:

1. *Gather Data*

- What is the population of your training group? What are the limitations of time and space? What are your resources (both materials and people)? What exactly is your task?
- Excellent designs have proven unsuccessful in practice because they did not take into account the particular uniqueness and limitation of the setting.
- At the beginning of the planning process, it is also helpful to organize the planning group so that everyone knows each other and has an idea of the variety of skills and experience represented in the group. It might also be helpful to have a member be an observer of your group's functioning so that your planning can proceed smoothly.
- The Group Collation Sheet - INTERESTS is part of your data.

2. *Translation of PROBLEMS into NEEDS into Training OBJECTIVES*

You start with the collation of INTERESTS of the workshop population. Often such formulations, however, do not tell you enough about the actual needs being expressed. They may be stated in vague and general terms, as frustrations or uneasy questions, or as job problems. Not all such *problems* call for training--some may be solved by changes in organizational structure, new procedures, or clarification. Other problems, once understood, may contain several training needs.

Example: expressed problem - There is poor communication between the training staff and the administration.

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| possible needs | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- to establish a regular meeting time between administration and the training staff- to train the staff in the consultant's role in relation to administration- to orient the administration to training goals and methods and the training staff to administration policies and procedures |
|----------------|---|

Also, some problems can contain idiosyncratic needs peculiar only to the individual who stated the problem, e.g. (in the above case), the need might be to resolve the personal conflict of personalities between Miss Waters of the training staff and Mr. Roberts of Personnel.

Vague and generalized problems should be analyzed as precisely as possible and defined to reveal the real needs and underlying situation. Often further clarification and information is needed by the training staff from the client before such clarity is gained.

After the precise need or needs have been ascertained, it is then the task of the planning staff to translate these needs into the desired learning objectives you wish to achieve from training. These training objectives are the specific tasks you will design programs and formats to accomplish in order to meet the needs of your clients. In the above example, if the need was, "to learn the consultant's role in relation to administration", the training objective might be, "to role-play with the training staff an administrator giving the trainer an assignment."

A summary of the above distinctions between problems, needs and objectives follows:

Problem	- a vague sense of unease; a general area of concern containing varied group, individual and community needs.
Need	- a defined expression asking for learning, change, or increased effectiveness, usually expressed with such formulations as; to know, to be able to, to change, etc.
Training Objective	- the statement of the desired learning to be achieved through training usually stated with such expressions as; to discuss, to train, to identify.
Outcome	- the desired state that training is being designed to achieve based on the defined objectives and needs.

3. Planning the Actual Design

After your specific training objective has been discussed and clarified, it is now appropriate to start planning the format for learning by which to achieve your objective.

The following is a list on considerations at this step in your planning process:

- * At the beginning of your design, there should be built in some time for *climate setting*--for establishing a comfortable, involving atmosphere. Sharing expectations, introducing the staff, gathering questions, starting off with icebreakers are all ways this can be done. Climate setting, although formally a concern at the beginning of an activity, actually is a dimension of the entire program (cf. Chapter 2, Part One).
- * In considering the methods, devices, and procedures to be used, make sure they are consistent with your objectives and integrated with the whole program.
- * Whatever methods you choose, it is important that they allow as much experiential practice and participant involvement as possible. The more participants enter into their own learning, the more rich and enjoyable that activity is.
- * Having selected your methods and general plan for your activity, discuss your individual roles as trainers in the exercise, the time allotments for the different phases, logistics, etc.
- * Evaluate and hypothetically test your design against the criteria of:
 - Does the design meet your objectives?
 - Does it allow for self-direction and involvement by the participants?
 - Are the methods chosen consistent with your objectives, with the setting, with your general andragogical process?
 - Is it exciting?
- * Also build in an evaluation phase for your design. This evaluation form or discussion should get at the following:

- _____ the emotional reactions to the training activity.
- _____ what learning was generated from it?
- _____ what degree of competence was felt to be gained in the skill or content of the design?

- how the group process facilitated or was unhelpful in progressing toward goals during the activity?
- some feedback for the training staff and the design and administration of the activity
- a re-assessment of the future needs or aspects of the training dimension for further inquiry

As a tool to your own designing process, the following checklist may help to keep the whole picture in focus as you proceed in your D-groups.

WORKSHEET:

PROBLEM:

NEED(S):

TRAINING OBJECTIVE:

DESIRED OUTCOME:

CHECKLIST FOR DESIGNING

DATA

EXPRESSED PROBLEM

RESEARCH

IVES

DESIRE OUTCOME(s)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

CLIMATE SETTING

MUST FOR TRUTH OR NEEDS,
OBJECTIVES AND AGENDA

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

EVALUATION

PEDAGOGY AND ANDRAGOGY

The following comparison of assumptions and processes of pedagogy and andragogy, prepared by Dr. Malcolm Knowles, illustrates two contrasting strategies for change and learning. This comparison may be useful in your designing activities.

ASSUMPTIONS			PROCESS ELEMENTS		
	Pedagogy	Andragogy		Pedagogy	Andragogy
Self-concept	Dependency	Increasing Self-direction	Climate	Authority-oriented Formal Competitive	Mutuality Respectful Collaborative Informal
Experience	Of little worth	Learners are a rich resource for learning	Planning	By teacher	Mechanism for mutual planning
Readiness	Biological development Social Pressure	Developmental tasks of social roles	Diagnosis of needs	By teacher	Mutual self-diagnosis
Time Perspective	Postponed application	Immediacy of application	Formulation of Objectives	By teacher	Mutual negotiation
Orientation to learning	Subject centered	Problem centered	Design	Logic of the subject matter Content units	Sequenced in terms of readiness Problem units
			Activities	Transmittal techniques	Experiential techniques (inquiry)
			Evaluation	By teacher	Mutual re-diagnosis of needs Mutual measurement of program

MIMEO DESIGN OF D-GROUP 1

DATA

EXPRESSED PROBLEM

DEFINED NEED(S)

TRAINING OBJECTIVES

DESIRED OUTCOME(S)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

CLIMATE SETTING

MUTUAL AGREEMENT
ON NEEDS, OBJECTIVES
AND AGENDA

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

EVALUATION

MIMEO DESIGN OF D-GROUP 2

DATA

EXPRESSED PROBLEM

DEFINED NEED(S)

TRAINING OBJECTIVE(S)

DESIRED OUTCOME(S)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

CLIMATE SETTING

MUTUAL AGREEMENT
ON NEEDS, OBJECTIVES
AND AGENDA

METHODS AND
PROCEDURES

EVALUATION

MIMEO DESIGN OF D-GROUP 3

DATA

EXPRESSED PROBLEM

DEFINED NEED(S)

TRAINING OBJECTIVE(S)

DESIRED OUTCOME(S)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

CLIMATE SETTING

MUTUAL AGREEMENT
ON NEEDS, OBJECTIVES
AND AGENDA

METHODS AND
PROCEDURES

EVALUATION

8

MIMEO DESIGN OF D-GROUP 4

DATA

EXPRESSED PROBLEM

DEFINED NEED(S)

TRAINING OBJECTIVE(S)

DESIRED OUTCOME(S)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

CLIMATE SETTING

MUTUAL AGREEMENT
ON NEEDS, OBJECTIVES
AND AGENDA

METHODS AND
PROCEDURES

EVALUATION

EVALUATION: DESIGN GROUP PROCESS

At the conclusion of the D-group's training activities, there will be an emergent evaluation session discussing the dynamics those groups experienced in their designing and implementing.

BOOKLET D
SYSTEMS INTERVENTION AND MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS

BOOKLET D: SYSTEMS INTERVENTION AND MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS

Introduction:

Training never takes place in a vacuum, but rather is surrounded by the needs and objectives of the client system and the effects of learning outcomes on the functioning of that system. Likewise, the trainer is a person who has interdependent relations and responsibilities with his client, his employer, and his mission and within the interlocking structure of his own agency or organization.

In addition to acquiring the skills of training--the internal dynamics related to the training enterprise--the potential andragogue needs also to be aware of the network of individual and community systems in which he operates and for which he renders service.

System is here defined as any configuration of interdependent people and roles which function together to accomplish a common endeavor. Every *group* is a system, although a system is not itself limited to being a face-to-face relation. A system, moreover, usually involves complex role specialization and and inter-group dynamics; the relation between *systems* and *subsystems*.

Assessing the needs of such systems, their readiness for change, and the appropriate interventions necessary for their particular needs--all become part of the trainer's responsibility as a consultant and change agent.

Workshop Instructions

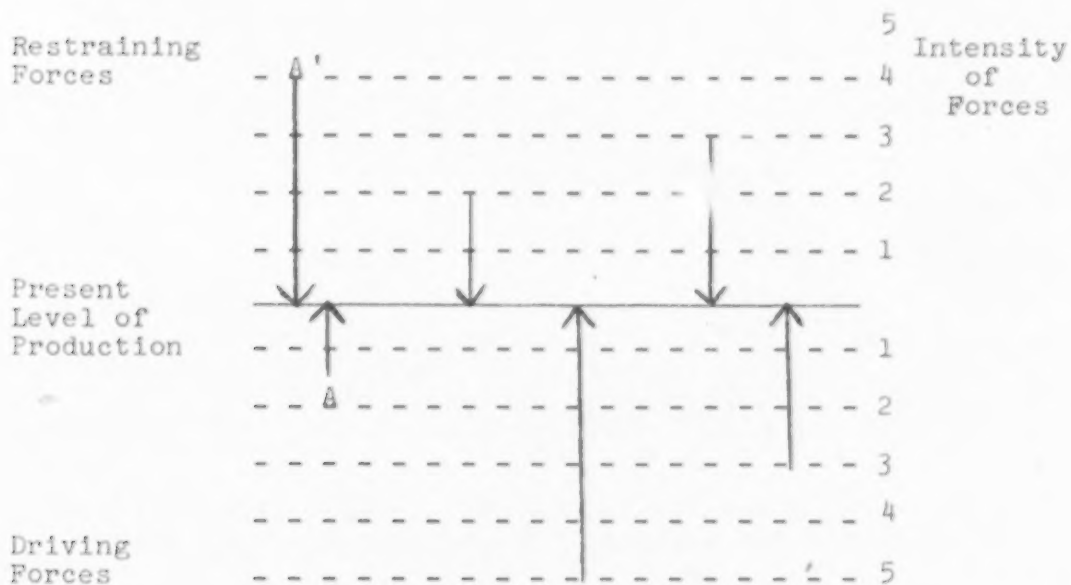
Training Skills Option III: THE TRAINER AS CONSULTANT, and Teaching Devices Option III: SIMULATION, both involve relevant materials for the trainer in a system. In addition to these options, the workshop has scheduled the night of the fourth day for the detailed exploration of this training dimension.

The materials that follow in this booklet provide theoretical input for the experiential simulation of Day Four.

FORCE FIELD THEORY

One helpful model for understanding the nature of change in systems is that developed by Kurt Lewin (1948). He perceived institutions or organizations existing in dynamic balance between opposing *forces* which are constantly in tension, relation or equilibrium. The relative intensity of these *forces*, the source from which they originate, and their effects on the organization, all determine whether that system is remaining static or is in flux. If, for example, the *driving* or increasing forces are equally matched by *restraining* or decreasing forces, the system remains static. If, on the other hand, one of these forces tends to increase or decrease in respect to others, the system changes.

A common example used to illustrate this model is the case of the production level of a work team in a factory (Bennis, Benne, Chin, 1969, p. 328ff). Lewin proposes that if the level of production remains constant over a period of time, it is because the forces that tend to raise the level are equal to the forces that tend to decrease it. This situation can be diagrammed:



An example of a driving force (A) in this case could be the desire of the workers to earn more money under the incentive plan of their company; a restraining force (A') could be the feeling by workers that their product is unimportant. In any case, Lewin holds that as long as the total sum of the restraining forces counteracts the total sum of the driving forces, the level of production remains the same.

There are three general strategies which can be employed to change this static state of the system:

1. The driving forces can be increased. The supervisor, for example, can apply more pressure or stricter quotas. While such coercive forces may temporarily increase production, it has been shown that use of this strategy alone tends also to increase the tension and resistance of the persons concerned. The psychological forces activated in reaction to such an increase in pressure can result in even stronger restraining forces.
2. The restraining forces can be reduced. Removing the blocks, resistances, dissatisfactions and tensions which keep production down can act to raise the level of production without increasing the tension of the system. Generally, this approach is recommended over the first. It gets at the problem causing the resistance rather than increasing the pressures.
3. Reduce the restraining forces and increase the driving forces. At the same time a supervisor is increasing incentives and inaugurating new procedures (increasing driving forces) he can also be initiating problem solving solutions for the resistances in the system (reducing restraining forces). If this approach is done consistently with the total system in mind, such a strategy can lead to the desired change in the system with the least amount of tension and resistance.

Application To Training

Lewin's Force Field Model can serve as a tool for the initial diagnosis of a system for which a trainer is to be a consultant. By analyzing the restraining and driving forces affecting his client's problem, he can determine an entry point for training or procedural interventions. The following worksheet provides a checklist for your use on a problem which has relevance to your own job responsibilities.

WORKSHEET: FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Problem (or Situation):

Driving Forces:

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

Restraining Forces: a'.

- b'.
- c'.
- d'.
- e'.

Restraining
Forces

----- 5
----- 4
----- 3
----- 2
----- 1

Intensity
of
Forces

Present
Level of
Production

----- 1
----- 2
----- 3
----- 4
----- 5

Driving
Forces

Point of Entry For Training:

Recommended Interventions:
(To reduce restraining forces
and increase driving forces)

The Consultant and the System: - A Model for Process Intervention

The andragogue in his training responsibilities often must deal with other agencies, organizations, and groups. The same process of education we have outlined for the design and implementation of adult training activities applies equally as well to the job of a consultant or of a manager in a system. The following model applies the andragogical process to the consultant's role.

1. *Establishing a Contract*

Part of the initial task of the consultant is to determine the *motivation* and *readiness* to change of his client system. The *resistances* and *resources* for such change must also be assessed. The Force Field Analysis model as described in this Booklet is helpful in this respect. Also the consultant's own motivation and resources as a change agent need to be assessed in terms of the system with which he is working.

It is important that both client and consultant are clear about their mutual expectations, perspectives, and relationship. The outcomes expected by the client and perceived by the consultant should be the same; an important dimension of climate setting.

2. *Diagnosis of the Problem*

When a client calls on a consultant, the problem has begun to be solved, for the client has recognized a problem and has begun to mobilize forces for its solution. He is already in a problem solving attitude and has shown he is receptive to new ideas. The consultant's first task, however, is to clearly define for himself the entire texture of the situation presented. Often the problem as stated by the client is not the real need (cf. Booklet C on the distinction between problem and need). Through interviews, questionnaires and on-site observation, the consultant needs to explore all the complex issues involved. From such information, he can then set objectives and design his intervention. (Steps 1 and 2 of this model are similar to *Organization Involvement* and *Pre-training Preparation* as outlined by Professor Nadler (1971) as well as with steps 1-4 of the andragogical process.)

3. *Point of Intervention*

After the preliminary work, need assessment and formulation of objectives, has been completed, the consultant is ready to enter the system. The following principles, as developed by Drs. Benne and Birnbaum specify the nature of this intervention (cf. Bennis, Benne, Chin, 1969, pp 33 ff):

- * To change a system, the relevant aspects of its environment must also be changed;
- * To change behavior at one level of a system, complementary and reinforcing changes must be achieved in levels above, below, and parallel to that level;
- * The place to begin a change is where there exists stress, strain, or frustration. Often these points are highly amenable to change;
- * The "higher" up a change is introduced in a system, the more effective it will be for total system change;
- * Change in a system is more effective when all persons affected by that change have a part in the problem-finding and problem-solving activities stemming from the consultant's intervention.

4. *Evaluation and Reinforcement*

After particular consultant interventions have been implemented, support and encouragement is needed to solidify the changes that have been effected. Without this reinforcement systems tend to revert back to old habits and procedures. One means for such reinforcement is the periodic evaluation process conducted by the consultant after his initial entry into the system is terminated. Also, if the changes instituted are integrated within the total system, reinforcement and confirmation tend to occur during normal operations.

5. *Termination*

The consultant seeks through whatever intervention he makes to transfer to the client system the necessary skills and capability to be self directing and self changing. He does not intentionally foster a dependent relationship, but strives instead to enhance the independent functioning of the system. (cf. Trainer Skills Option III).

SYSTEMS SIMULATION

(A) EXERCISE

- GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF EXERCISE:
- * To experience and explore the dynamics of systems and sub-systems.
 - * To practice creating inter-group communications, especially between administration functions and the training enterprise.
 - * To relate these experiences to organizational effectiveness and mission responsibilities.

Procedure:

The training staff begins with a brief input and discussion of the nature and definition of *systems* (cf. previous materials in this Booklet and Chapter 7 of Part One).

Participants are then introduced to this simulation and given Instructional Sheet I, which gives a description of the total system they represent and asks that they divide into particular sub-groups of their own choosing. Activity is begun and continues until the simulation segment is completed.

This simulation symbolizes an organizational system all of whose components--administration, personnel, training, research and design, budget and finance, public relations, and support staff--are represented in the metaphoric system of a Repertory Company. The evaluation session following this simulation will discuss participants' learning regarding systems, organizational communication, and inter-group dynamics.

(B) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET I

The total participant community of the workshop is asked to assume the role of a traveling Repertory Company--an entertainment company whose specialty is performing skits, plays, or variety shows for Five Day Residential Workshops.

This Repertory Company is being asked to plan, write, organize and enact a one half hour dress rehearsal of a show for this workshop which will dramatize, satirize and/or set to music some learnings, events, exercises or dimensions of training common to the experience of members of this workshop.

The Repertory Company will be composed of the following sub-groups:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <i>Producers</i> (3 persons) | The producers are responsible for the completion of this whole task, having executive authority and over-all responsibility for the Company and the Show. |
| <i>Talent Recruiters and Casters</i> (6 persons) | The recruiters and casters are responsible for soliciting the talent needed to perform in the created show. The performers can be gathered from the whole workshop community. |
| <i>Directors</i> (3 persons) | The directors are responsible for interpreting the created play or skits, etc., to the performer; transforming the material into a show. |
| <i>Playwriters</i> (8 persons) | The playwriters are responsible for creating the play skit, dialogue, etc., which will be the content of the show. |
| <i>Schedulers</i> (3 persons) | The schedulers are responsible for allocating and monitoring the time limitations of the Repertory Company (2 1/2 hours for planning, 1/2 hour for show). |
| <i>Public Relations</i> (4 persons) | The public relations group is responsible for observing the other groups and reporting to all groups on the progress, difficulties, and needs of the Show. |
| <i>Stage Hands</i> (5 persons) | The stage hands are responsible for creating or collecting the materials needed for the performance of the Show and for all support during that performance. |

(C) EVALUATION

This evaluation will be designed by the trainers in training at the completion of the simulation exercise.

BOOKLET E
EVALUATION PROCEDURES AND APPLICATION
OF LEARNING TO FIELD SETTINGS

BOOKLET E: EVALUATION PROCEDURES AND APPLICATION OF LEARNING TO FIELD SETTINGS

Introduction

Evaluation is an integral component of every training activity or program. Finding out whether one's designs, exercises, or interventions have achieved their desired results is necessary if one wishes to be responsible in training. Merely gathering this data on *results*, however, does not fully describe the function of evaluation. Evaluation procedures themselves can provide a rich learning experience that is part of your training activity.

Too often evaluation is viewed as a *post*-learning event that takes place *after* the program is completed. This Guide, however, proposes that evaluation is part of the learning sequence and a necessary step in andragogical process. Evaluation summarizes, articulates, orders, and assesses where a person is with respect to his learning objectives. Such assessment of learning, then, allows for the trainee to re-assess his needs, interests, and values in light of such outcomes. This re-assessment is both part of evaluation and part of the preparation for future training.

When training activities follow andragogical process, evaluation is the last step prior to the commencement of the next learning sequence. After implementing a training program, one needs to assess the learning outcome and begin planning for the next developmental phase. In summary, evaluation denotes the following three components:

1. Discovery of what change and learning has taken place.
2. Exploration of how such discoveries are applicable to other settings and circumstances.
3. Re-assessment of one's own needs, interests, and values in light of such learning and applications.

Evaluation is not a mere test to discover what was not learned. In voluntary adult education and training, the concern is for the *worth* of the program in question--what degree of *involvement*, *persistence*, and *satisfaction* the trainee has experienced. Evaluation also functions as a feedback resource for the trainer, providing him with the data necessary for his own continued improvement as an effective facilitator of adult learning.

Workshop Instructions

During this workshop, as part of each exercise of learning segment, there have been a variety of evaluation procedures. These

questionnaires, collation sheets and discussions have been incorporated into their respective Booklets. During Day Five of the workshop, *Evaluation* as a topic and *Evaluation of the Workshop* itself are the focus.

A four-phase evaluation program has been designed for Day Five of the workshop to meet the needs of this dual focus:

Phase One: APPLICATION OF LEARNING TO FIELD SETTINGS

Phase Two: EVALUATION OF PERSONAL COMPETENCY

Phase Three: EVALUATION OF THE FIVE DAY WORKSHOP - A Systems Approach

Phase Four: EVALUATION OF THE FIVE DAY WORKSHOP - A Subjective Approach

All four phases are intended to bridge the distance between the workshop and the participants' own professional job responsibilities as well as to introduce Part Three of the Guide: FOR CONTINUING APPLICATION.

EVALUATION PROCEDURES (GENERAL) (Miles 1959)

Before a Training Event, it is helpful to know:

- expectations
 - *what do the trainees hope, believe, fear will happen or not happen?
- experience
 - *what previous training have the trainees had?
- responsibilities
 - *what are the trainees' leadership roles?
- relationships
 - *what are the trainees' past and future relations with one another?

After a Training Event, it is helpful to know:

- emotional reactions (feelings)
 - *rating scale
 - *right now, I feel
- information received (understandings)
 - *what were the three most significant learnings for you today?
 - *what is clear/unclear?
- feelings of competence in skill (behavior)
 - *in administering training design, I feel most adequate in
 - *list the skills in which you feel others believe you most competent
- group process
 - *in what ways did your group work well or not well?
 - *what person seems to hear me the best?
- future training
 - *what would you like to see done in the next session?
 - *list the three skills which you now would like to practice
- trainer design and administration
 - *what could the trainers do to be more helpful?
 - *in the last session, what was most helpful/least helpful?

Guideposts

- Members should not necessarily be asked to sign their names.
- Results should always be reported back to the group.
- Never ask a question that elicits "yes" or "no" for an answer.
- The sharpness of questions determines the sharpness of answers.
- Data collectors are guides, not a determinant for you as trainer.
- If the group resists using reaction forms, they need to become more involved in the decision to use them in planning the questions and knowing the use of the results.
- Data collected in written form is only part of the data needed.

EVALUATION TECHNIQUES

The following gives a brief list of techniques for evaluation. *Remember:* Evaluation does not end the training cycle. It begins it again on another level (re-assessment of needs).

1. Post Meeting Reaction Forms

Brief questionnaires completed at the end of each meeting provide a quick and continuous resource for replanning during the ongoing training program. The results of such forms can be tabulated easily and presented at the beginning of the next session for comment. Also, they can serve the training staff in long range planning activities.

2. Interviews

Two person or group interviews can solicit much information in an informal way. It is most appropriate when one is determining levels of change in attitudes and general reaction to training.

3. Discussion

At the end of the meeting or program a discussion can be held evaluating both the learning outcomes of the meeting as well as the processes, administration, and coordination efforts. Reports can be solicited from such groups and collated for the entire group.

4. Tests

Standardized or subjective tests, open-ended questionnaires, and surveys are more formal means of evaluation and are useful when a large number of people are involved and/or when you are planning a long-range complex training program.

5. Competency Models

(cf. Part One, Chapter 3; Part Two, Booklet B)
Periodic development of individual competency models provide a resource for the continual re-assessment of training needs.

6. Observation

The use of observers during your training can greatly aid the collation of important data at the end of the program.

Phase One: EVALUATION

APPLICATION OF LEARNING TO FIELD SETTINGS

(A) Exercise

- General Objectives of Exercise:*
- * To explore and share common problems encountered in professional life.
 - * To begin to apply workshop learnings to job situations.
 - * To facilitate entry into "back home" settings.

Procedure:

This exercise begins with the total workshop community dividing into new groups (E-groups) of approximately eight people apiece. The trainer asks each group to brainstorm for twenty minutes on any problems, situations, or questions which may exist in the participants' job settings, especially the ones that relate to their new learning during the workshop (e.g., conflicting policies at home with workshop values and methods).

The trainers then solicit these problems from reporters in each E-group and write them on large flip charts. Many of these problems may overlap. After all the reports are in, they are grouped into identifiable categories. Participants are then re-formed into Interest groups, choosing one of these categories and attempting to work out recommendations for their solution.

The final report from these problem-solving groups will consist of each group's recommendations or plans for further exploration. These reports are then collated with the identified problem areas and reproduced for future reference.

GROUP COLLATION SHEET

Identifiable Problem Areas	Recommended Solutions or Procedures
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.
6.	6.
7.	7.
8.	8.

Phase Two: EVALUATION

EVALUATION OF PERSONAL COMPETENCE

EXERCISE

*General Objectives
of Exercise*

* To articulate one's personal learnings during the workshop in terms of stated goals, expectations and needs.

* To re-assess one's training needs in light of the workshop.

Procedure:

Participants will be asked to temporarily remove from their Guides the three competency models completed on Day One of the workshop (cf. Introduction, Booklet B). These models will serve as a comparison to the following models to be completed at this time.

1. COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

On the following scale, enter your original estimate of your level of effectiveness in implementing the seven step andragogical process. Using a different color pen then rate your present felt level of effectiveness:

100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							
	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests, Goals	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassess- ment of Needs

After you have completed this model, compare the two ratings and mark the difference between them. In the space provided below, give a brief account of some reasons for the difference or lack of difference in the two models. Utilize other members of your group as resources to help you clarify your perceptions.

2. COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

On the following scale, enter your original estimate of your proficiency in the eight training skills and teaching devices described in this Guide. In a different color pen then rate your present level of proficiency.

100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							

After you have completed this model, compare the two ratings and mark the difference between them. In the space provided below, give a brief account of some reasons for the difference or lack of difference in the two models. Group discussion of this question can be helpful in clarifying your responses.

3. PERSONAL COMPETENCY

On the following scale, enter your original *proficiency* and *expectations for improvement* in the seven personal training interests and job related skills you selected. In a different color pen then rate the degree to which you now estimate you have progressed in these seven areas:

100						
90						
80						
70						
60						
50						
40						
30						
20						
10						
0						

After you have completed this model, compare the three ratings and mark the difference between them. In the space provided below, give a brief account of some reasons for the difference or lack of difference in the three models. Discuss your responses with other members of your group.

Phase Three: EVALUATION

EVALUATION OF THE FIVE DAY WORKSHOP - A Systems Approach

(A) EXERCISE

General Objectives of Exercise

- * To assess the entire workshop with regard to its Output
- * To introduce Part III of the Guide and plan for a return to field settings

Procedure:

The training staff introduces this session with general comments on the nature of evaluation, self-assessment, and re-assessment of training needs (cf. Introduction Booklet E, and Part One, Chapter 6).

The *Systems Outcome Criteria* by which the workshop is to be evaluated are then briefly described (cf. Input Sheet B). Each participant will then complete Rating Scale C.

(B) INPUT: SYSTEMS OUTPUT CRITERIA

I PRODUCTIVITY

The attainment of the workshop goals as listed in the Introduction of Part Two, as collated from participants during the Introductory Session (Booklet C), and as determined by participants' competency models (Booklet B and E):

Product Utility - To what degree was the workshop designed to meet these sets of goals and needs?

Service Utility - To what degree did the workshop succeed in actually meeting these sets of goals and needs?

II WORKSHOP HEALTH

The ability of the workshop to maintain itself and its productivity in terms of dynamic interaction of the workshop, it's participants, staff and climate:

Adaptability - To what extent did the workshop solve it's problems and react with flexibility to changing needs, interests, values and climate?

Identity Sense - To what extent were the goals of the workshop understood and shared widely by participants, and to what extent was the perception of the Workshop by the participants in line with the perceptions by the staff?

Capacity to Test Reality - To what extent did the workshop provide a setting for searching out, accurately perceiving and correctly interpreting the real needs of participants?

III INTEGRATION POTENTIAL

The ability of the workshop to mesh the needs of the individual and/or groups to workshop and participant goals:

Self-actualization - To what extent did you as a member of the workshop realize your highest personal goals (cf. personal competency model completed in Booklets B and E)?

Group Decision- - To what extent were individual members
Making and groups involved with the staff in
making decisions regarding the achieve-
ment of workshop goals?

Individual's - To what extent did participants willingly
Ability to attempt and/or accept innovation?
Change

IV FEEDBACK

This section measures the effectiveness and utilization of workshop evaluations and assessments of various exercises and activities during the entire five-day period including today's sessions:

Desirability - To what degree was feedback encouraged and
of accepted by the participants and staff?

Penetration - To what degree was such feedback effective
of in influencing your learning from the
workshop?

(C) RATING SCALE

On the line below each criteria, with (1) being the lowest and (9) being the highest, rate the Five-Day Residential Workshop.

I. PRODUCTIVITY

Product Utility
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Service Utility
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

II WORKSHOP

Adaptability
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Identity
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Reality Test
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Capability
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

III INTEGRATION

Self-actualization
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Group Decision Making
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Individual Flexibility
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

IV FEEDBACK

Desirability of
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Penetration of
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Phase Four: EVALUATION

EVALUATION OF FIVE-DAY WORKSHOP - A Subjective Approach

The workshop has been designed around the five dimensions and booklets described in the Introduction to Part Two of the Guide. These dimensions will be listed on newsprint for your reference in this evaluation.

In your separate E-Groups, please complete the following questionnaire after briefly discussing each point:

1. What was the most "valuable" dimension of the workshop?
2. What was the least "valuable" dimension of the workshop?
3. List one or two learnings gained in each of these dimensions:

Booklet A: Adult Learning in Groups

A.

B.

Booklet B: Trainer Skills and Teaching Devices

A.

B.

Booklet C: Design and Implementation of Adult Learning Activities

A.

B.

Booklet D: Systems Intervention and Management Analysis

A.

B.

Booklet E: Evaluation Procedures and Application of
Learning to Field Settings

A.

B.

Final Comments on the Workshop

At the conclusion of this evaluation, Part III of the Guide will be explained as "Field Application", an ongoing process of continued learning.

Part 3

ANDRAGOGY, For Continuing Application

Page

RECORDING AND LEARNING FROM FIELD EXPERIENCE

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PART THREE

FOR CONTINUING APPLICATION

Recording and Learning from Field Experience

The facilitation of training capabilities and skills in andragogical process requires the creative application and experimentation by the trainer in his own unique setting. Parts One and Two of this Guide are intended to give the necessary background input and experiential practice in the principles and skills of the training of adults. The actual assimilation of these learnings by the trainer is heavily influenced by the way he implements such learning in his own training activities.

The trainer's application of learning following this Five Day Workshop will be a continuous process of experimentation, variation, adaptation and re-assessment of training needs. This period can be a rich growth experience following the workshop as well as a source for new questions and a search for advanced competencies. Part Three of this Guide, therefore, envisions a six-month interval between the training program of Part Two and the renewed training of Part Three. For this interval, the trainer in training is offered a series of "field sheets" to assist his transfer of learnings and application of his skills. This initial material includes the following:

A Personal Journal

Participants of the workshop are encouraged to keep a private journal of the personal and interpersonal processes, problems, and insights he becomes aware of as he implements andragogical educational activities.

Clinicing Procedures

A sheet describing procedures and offering suggestions to facilitate reinforcement of learning and continuous feedback in one's "back home" setting.

Evaluation Forms

These sheets are for use in conjunction with the trainer's application of the skills, exercises, formats and devices encountered during the workshop.

Competency Models

These models will record the trainer's continued assessment of his competence in Andragogy, Training and Personal Skills.

Questionnaire

Following this six month interval, another Five Day Residential Workshop is envisioned. This questionnaire will be mailed to all participants asking for summaries of the information they have included into Part Three of their Guides. This information will be used by the training staff of the second workshop in their initial planning and design. The workshop itself will, however, be a semi-structured format encouraging the active participation of its members in designing and conducting their own training activities centered around actual problems, needs and values encountered during the six-month interval between workshops.

Workshop Materials

The exercises, devices, formats and learnings of the second Five Day Workshop will be reproduced and made available to participants for inclusion into Part Three of this Guide.

PERSONAL JOURNAL

A journal is a subjective diary of your thoughts, feelings, insights, problems and learnings which are generated as you implement the learnings acquired during the workshop.

Often the articulation of these reactions increases one's understanding of one's own identity and professional role. It is for this reason that we encourage the keeping of a personal journal which will be for your own private use.

A journal might consist of the following:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Aspirations: | My own thoughts, hopes, expectations prior to a training event. |
| Task and Process Issues: | What are the goals of the training event looked at from the perspective of task and process? |
| Organization Development Issues: | What goals do I feel are important in terms of organizational development? |
| Applications: | What training skills and teaching devices have I used? How skillful was I? How well did the devices work? |
| Evaluation of Outcomes: | What was learned? Is there any subjective or objective data to support my beliefs? What are the needs now? |

CLINICING

One element of andragogical process that has been emphasized continuously during the workshop and in this Guide is the importance of periodically re-assessing one's competencies and learning needs. This need becomes even more important in the trainer's field setting, where he will be applying and experimenting with his new learnings.

One method of ensuring that such a re-assessment will take place effectively and valuably is the *clinic session*. A clinic is an evaluation and sharing session in which trainers who hold common interests and responsibilities meet to accomplish some or all of the following:

- * Provide re-inforcement to each other's accepted behavioral changes
- * Give support to one another's learnings and values generated during the workshop
- * Explore common interests and needs from the workshop or stimulated by training
- * Give feedback to members' new experimentations in training and personal behavior patterns
- * Explore and develop new skills, methods, formats and devices to enhance one's professional competence
- * Share resources
- * Extend workshop learnings to new field settings and experiment with applications and variations of andragogy
- * Plan common activities or programs

Clinic sessions can be formed either from participants in the workshop who meet periodically or from team members who share in the daily professional responsibilities. In any case, the careful maturing of a clinic group can greatly aid the application of your learning in new and exciting field situations.

NOTE: It is recommended that when such clinic groups are formed, that a careful record of their progress be kept for inclusion in your Guide.

EVALUATION FORM

This form is intended for your use following an application and/or variation of the skills, formats, or devices outlined in this Guide and experienced during the workshop.

Problem or Situation:

Exercise, Device or Skill used:

Adaptation or Variation:

*Summary of Evaluation:
(by participants of your activity)*

Difficulties Encountered:

Advantages Realized:

Personal Learnings:

*Recommendations for
future utilization of
this skill, exercise,
format or device:*

EVALUATION FORM

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*Summary of Evaluation:
(by participants of your activity)*

Difficulties Encountered

Advantages Realized:

Personal Learnings:

*Recommendations for
future utilization of
this skill, exercise,
format or device:* 

COMPETENCY MODELS

The following models are intended to record your continued development as andragogues and to assess your degree of competence in the skills of training.

1. Competency in Andragogy

On this first scale, record the original estimate of your competence in the seven step process of andragogy as well as your final evaluation of the degree of improvement through participation in the workshop.

100						
90						
80						
70						
60						
50						
40						
30						
20						
10						
0						
	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities
						Evaluation and Reassess- ment of Needs

Original Estimate - - - - -
5th Day Revised Estimate _____

COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in designing and implementing andragogical activities and programs.

100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							
	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassess- ment of Needs

COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in designing and implementing andragogical activities and programs.

100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							
	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassess- ment of Needs

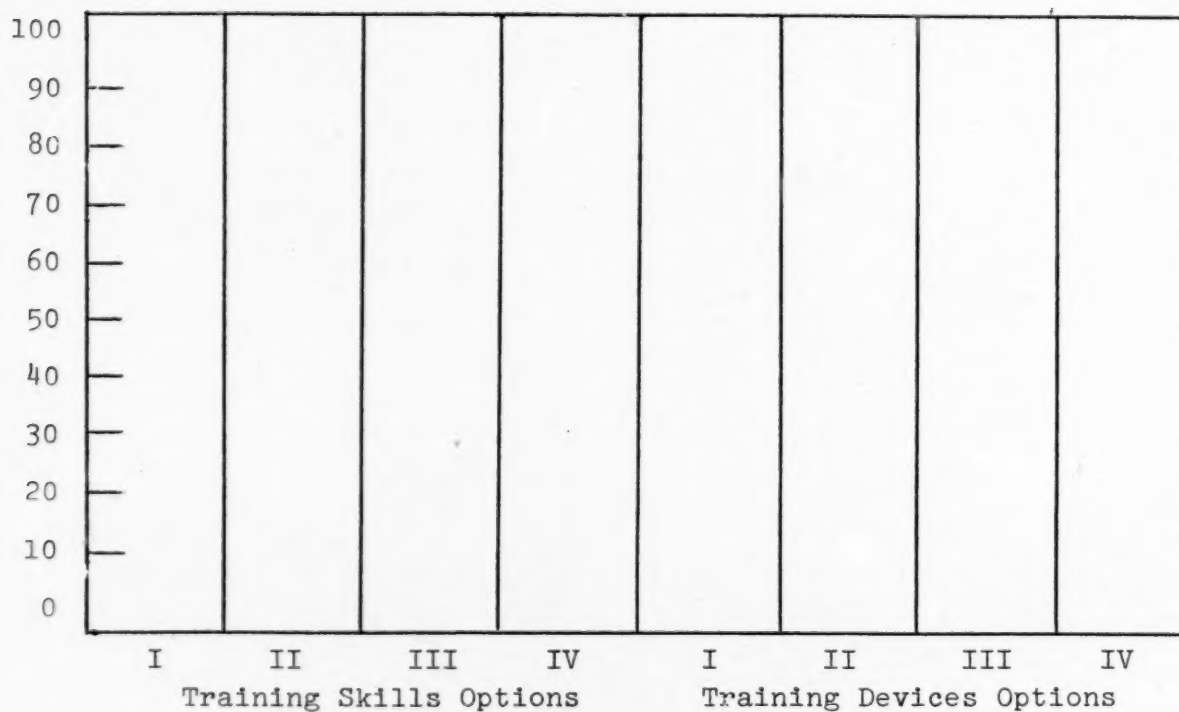
COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in designing and implementing andragogical activities and programs.

100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							
	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassess- ment of Needs

2. COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

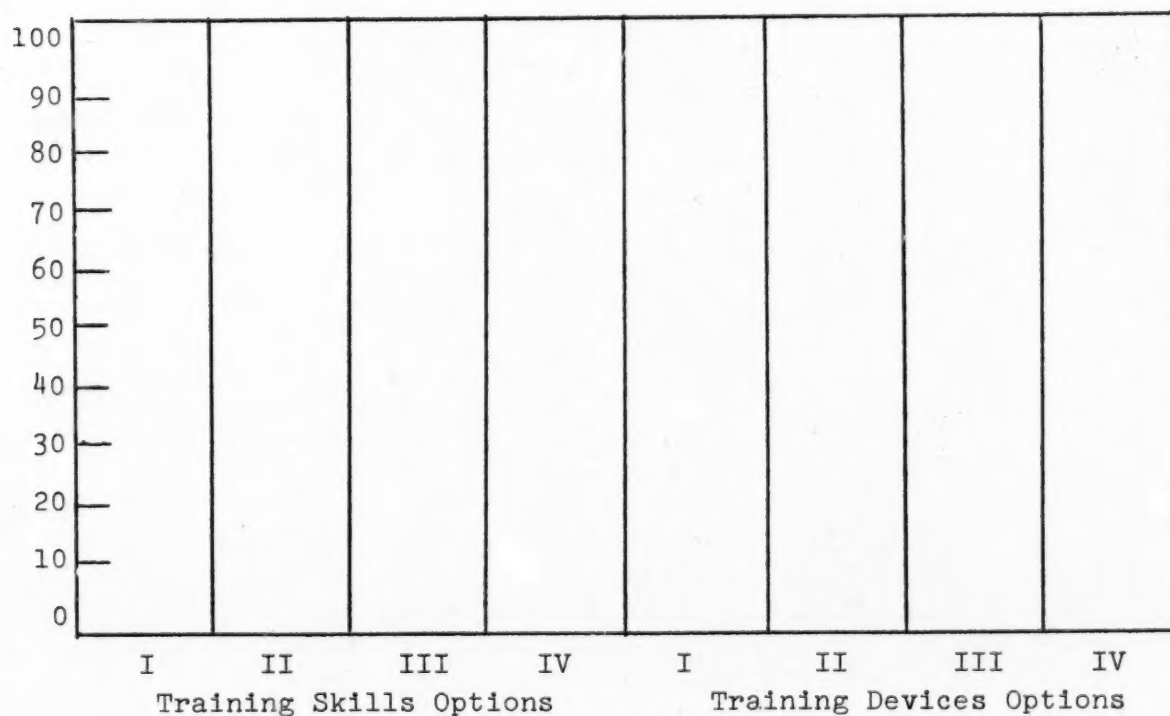
On this first scale, record the original estimate of your competence in the eight trainer skills and teaching devices outlined in this Guide as well as final evaluation of the degree of improvement through participation in the workshop.



Original Estimate - - - - -
 5th Day Revised Estimate ———

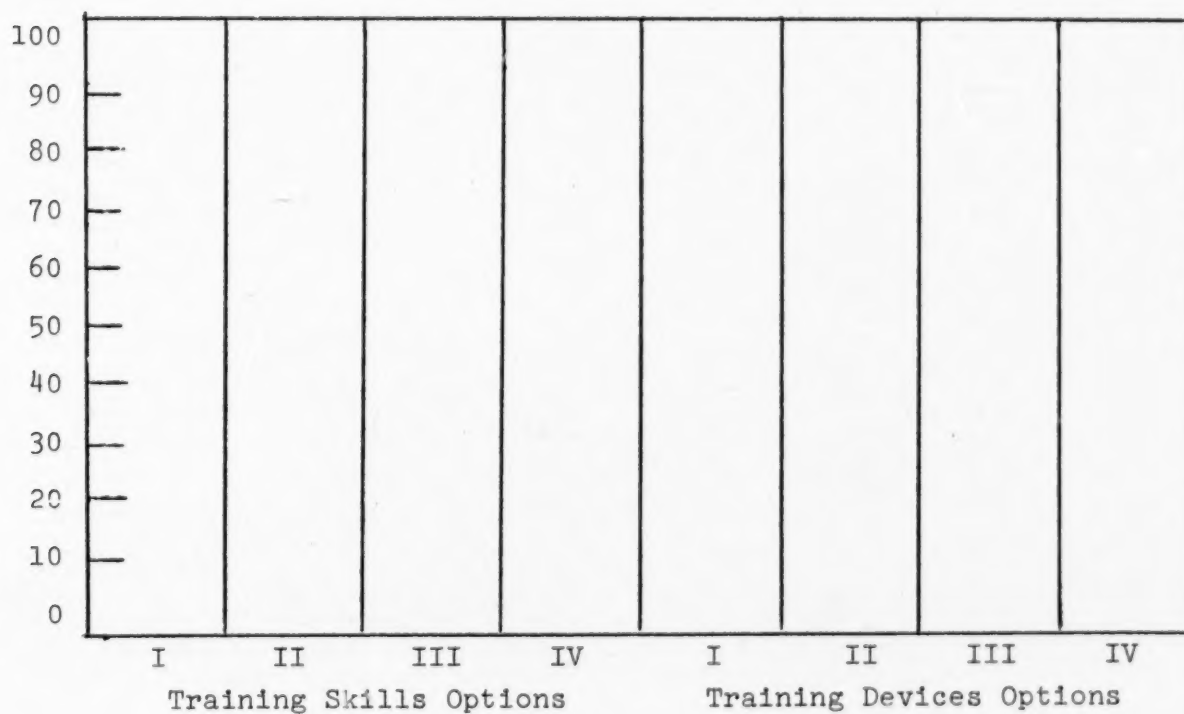
COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the eight trainer skills and teaching devices outlines in this Guide.



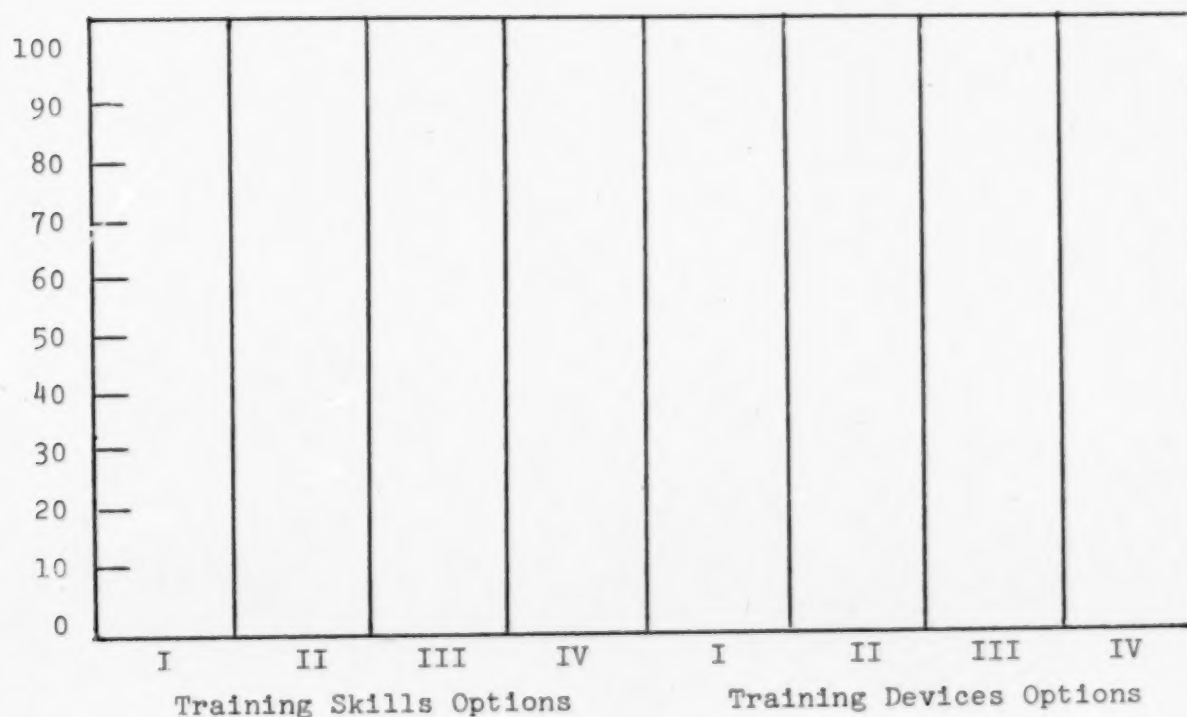
COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the eight trainer skills and teaching devices outlined in this Guide.



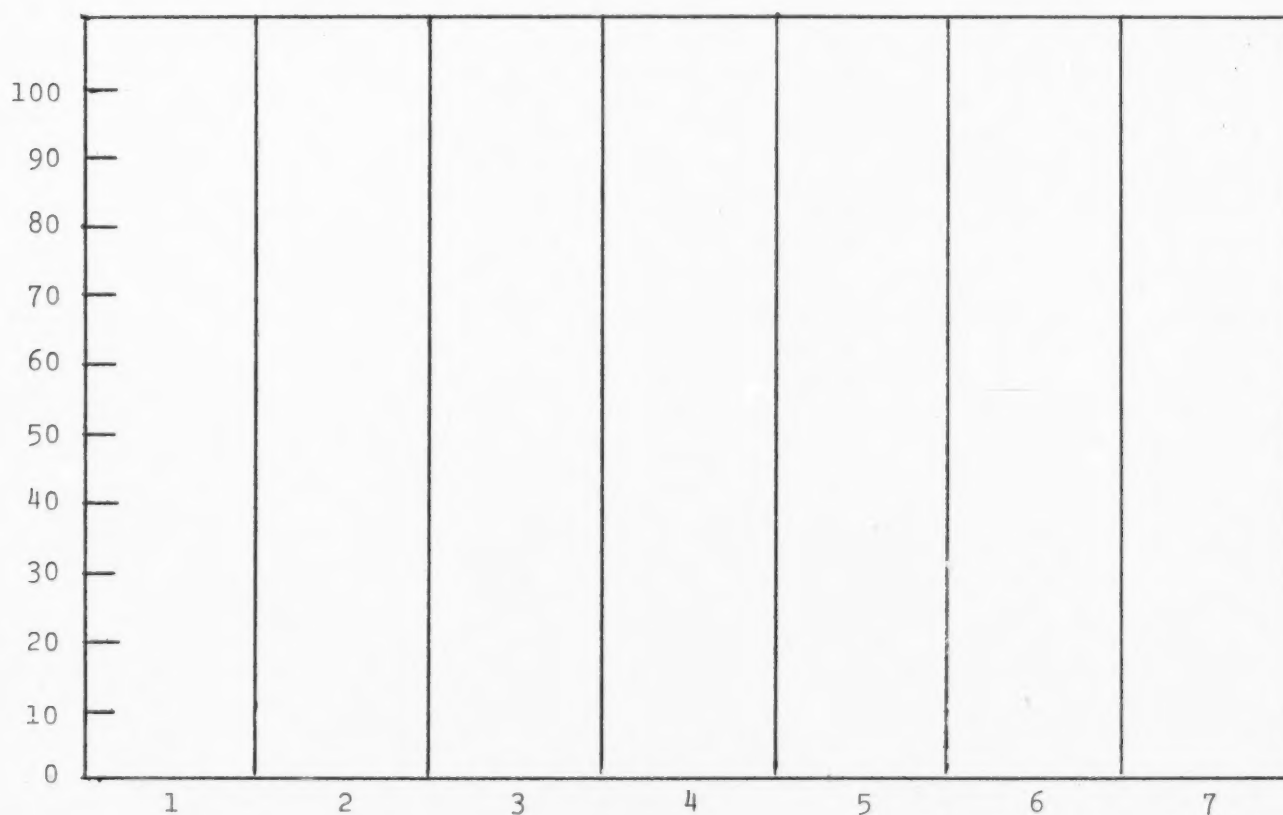
COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the eight trainer skills and teaching devices outlines in this Guide.



3. PERSONAL COMPETENCY

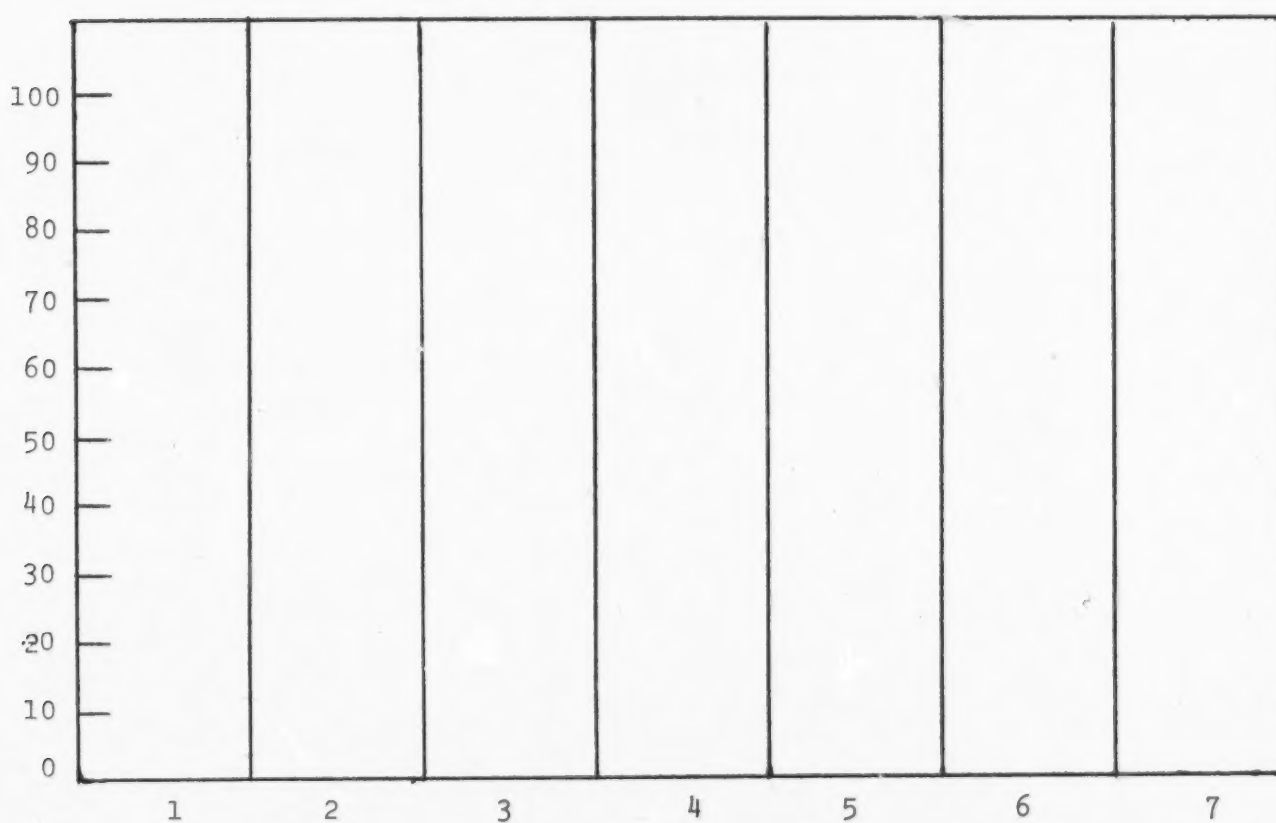
On the first scale, record the original estimate of your competency in the seven personal training interests and job related skills you selected at the beginning of the workshop as well as your final evaluation of the degree of improvement through participation in the workshop.



Original Estimate - - - - -
5th Day Revised Estimate _____

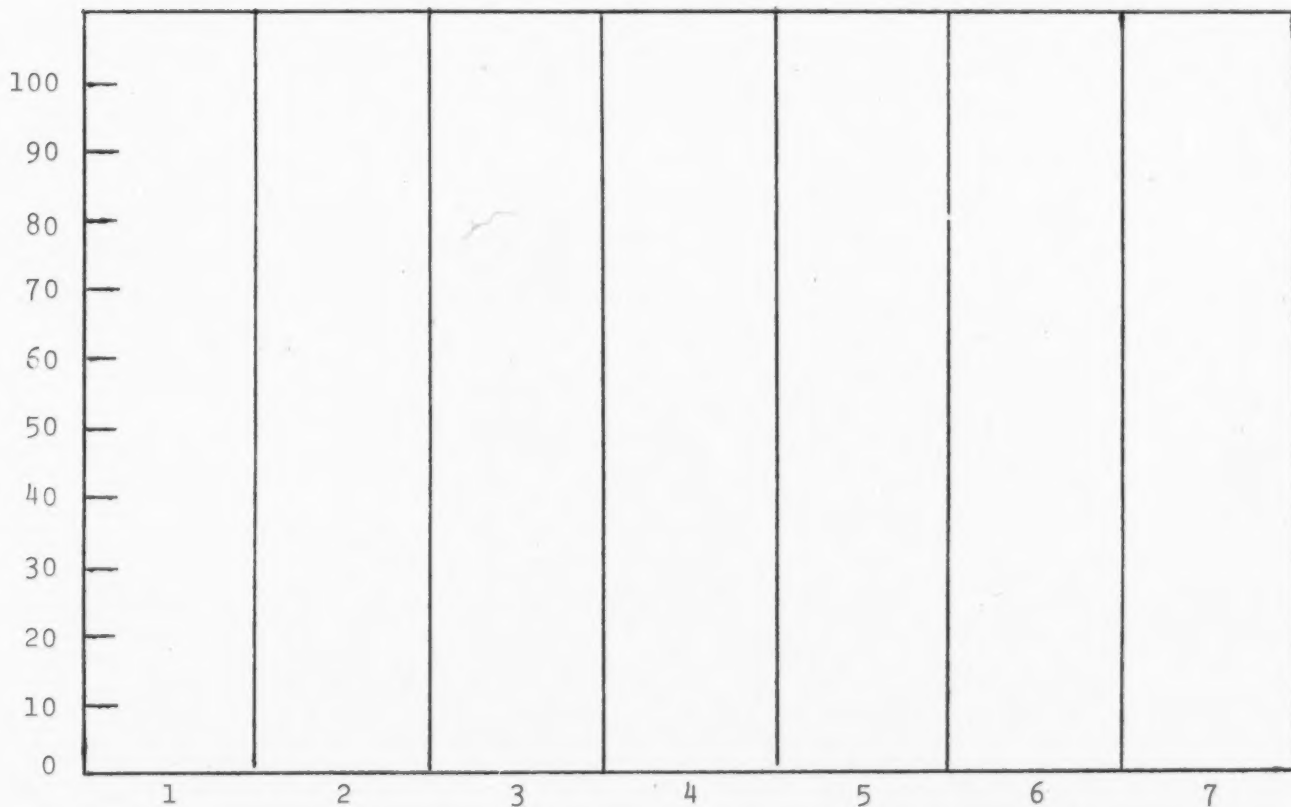
PERSONAL COMPETENCY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the seven personal training interests and job related skills you selected at the beginning of the workshop.



PERSONAL COMPETENCY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the seven personal training interests and job related skills you selected at the beginning of the workshop.



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Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the seven personal training interests and job related skills you selected at the beginning of the workshop.



Appendix

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AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

For Part One:

Argyris, Chris, *Intervention Theory and Method: A Behavioral Science View*, Addison Wesley, Reading, Mass. 1970

Argyris has prepared a remarkable book that links systems theory with administration and management and provides examples of effective and ineffective system interventions. An excellent resource for anyone interested in developing process consultation skills.

Gellerman, Saul A., *Motivation and Productivity*, American Management Association, New York 1963

Mr. Gellerman has performed an extremely capable analysis of current studies on human motivation from the standpoint of "the motivated individual, "the motivating environment" and the integration of the two "motivation in perspective". This is a fine introductory text to the issues and problems of human motivation and management.

Goldstein, Kurt, *Human Nature: In the Light of Psychopathology*, Schocken Books, New York 1940

An essential book for a deeper insight into the nature of science and the nature of man. Dr. Goldstein's clinical research proves the fundamental motivation of mankind to be "self-actualization". Dr. Goldstein, as one of the founders of Gestalt psychology, has provided us with a penetrating insight into normal and abnormal human behavior. Through an analysis of the effects of isolation, Dr. Goldstein derives a conception of normal behavior that has important consequences for men and society.

Janis, Irving L., *Groupthink*, Psychology Today, November 1971

Janis introduces his forthcoming book, *Victims of Groupthink*, Houghton Mifflin, with a lead article in Psychology Today. The main thrust of the book is a study of the group dynamics of war and peace and an analysis of the ways in which major policy decisions have been reached. Its primary value here lies in the presentation of various pitfalls to effective decision making in groups.

Knowles, Malcolm S., *The Modern Practice of Adult Education*, Association Press, New York. 1970

Knowles provides a comprehensive study of the elements and principles of andragogy and presents voluminous information on planning, designing and implementing adult education activities. A most important book, Dr. Knowles' *Modern Practice of Adult Education* is an essential volume for anyone interested in adult education and training.

Lewin, Kurt, *Resolving Social Conflicts*, Harper and Row, New York 1948

A series of monographs, this book is an excellent introduction to the genius of Kurt Lewin and his startlingly accurate analyses of social forces and ways to effect social change.

McGregor, Douglas, *The Human Side of Enterprise*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York. 1960

In a classic study of fundamental assumptions underlying the management process, McGregor laid the foundation for much of the subsequent research in the behavioral science approach to management. An excellent introductory volume for anyone as yet unfamiliar with this area of interest.

Maslow, Abraham H., *Motivation and Personality*, Harper and Row, New York. 1970 Second Edition

The second edition of Maslow's great analysis of human motivation forms the capstone on the life work of this famous psychologist and humanist. This book makes a major contribution to human knowledge with its presentation of the hierarchy of human needs and the operational nature of needs as motivators of human behavior.

Maslow, Abraham H., *Eupsychian Management*, Richard D. Irwin Inc., and the Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois. 1965

Maslow is equally at home with psychology and management. This unusual book points the way toward the future of management and society. An outstanding analysis of modern scientific trends, management theory and practice and applied social psychology.

Raths, Louis E., Harmin, Merrill and Simon, Sidney B., *Values and Teaching*, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., Columbus, Ohio. 1966

A clear approach to the question of values and the relationship of value clarification to education. This book should be helpful to trainers and adult educators. It includes some helpful techniques for value clarification and provides an important psychological dimension omitted from many texts on training and education.

Schein, Edgar H., *Process Consultation*, (part of six volume series on organization development), Addison Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Mass. 1969

Schein presents a masterful and brief analysis of the major dimensions of group dynamics in the first part of the

valuable book. The second part is devoted to an extended discussion of the role and function of the process consultant. This is a very worthwhile book for anyone interested in present and future trends in training.

For Part Two:

Abt, Clark C., *Serious Games*, The Viking Press, New York. 1970

Clark Abt, a pioneer in the development of simulation games, here outlines the principles behind the educational value of such role play devices. In addition, he details a few of his more successful simulations developed for government and education.

Argyris, Chris., *T-groups for Organizational Effectiveness*, Harvard Business Review, March-April 1964

This article is an excellent summary of the laboratory method of education, especially as it contributes to organizational development. Dr. Argyris clarifies many questions often put to "sensitivity training" concerning its value as a technique for re-education and change.

Banathy, Bela H., *Industrial Systems*, Feuson Publishers, Palo Alto, Ca. 1968

Dr. Banathy in this volume explores the educational relevance of systems theory and practice. In presenting recommendations for the use of the systems approach to designing training curriculum, this book very capably relates the andragogical process to systems analysis.

Benne, Kenneth a) *The Small Group as a Medium of Re-education*
Human Relations Center Training Notes,
Boston University
b) *Decision Making in Groups*, Human Relations
Center Training Notes, Boston University
c) *Change Does Not Have to Be Haphazard*
School Review, Vol. 68, No. 3. 1960

These three articles by Ken Benne explore the place groups and group dynamics have in education and social change. Dr. Benne illustrates how groups can function effectively as a means for personal actualization and organizational health.

Bennis, Warren; Benne, Kenneth; Chin, Robert, *The Planning of Change*, Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York, First Edition, 1961. Second Revised Edition, 1969.

Both editions of this important book contain a number of articles which apply and adapt theories of social and personal dynamics to planned change. The First Edition stresses the place of T-groups in the contemporary age of social change.

The Second Edition (90% different from the first) has the more general intention of developing the whole field of Applied Social Science. Both volumes are strongly recommended.

Bergevin, Paul; Morris, Dwight; Smith, Robert M., *Adult Education Procedures*, The Seaburg Press, New York, 1963

Bergevin, Morris and Smith present a survey outline of the various procedures and techniques developed for adult education including a description of twenty educational techniques which have proved effective in their own experience. This volume is a good supplement to the work of Malcolm Knowles and Matthew Miles.

Boocock, S; and Schilde, E., *Simulation Games in Learning*, Sage Publishers, Inc., Beverly Hills, Ca. 1968

In this very interesting and clearly written book, the authors study the fascination of simulations, their workable potentials for learning, the questions they raise, and the research findings from games, e.g., Parent-Child, Life Career, Democracy, Community Disaster, Economics. The basic contention is that learning can be both interesting and fun.

Knowles, Malcolm and Hulda, *Introduction to Group Dynamics*, Association Press, New York. 1959

In this small volume, the Knowles' present a clear picture of the field of Group Dynamics. It is a valuable book with which to begin this exploration and is especially recommended for the person unfamiliar with training or small groups.

Likert, Rensis, *The Nature of Highly Effective Groups*, New Patterns of Management, McGraw Hill 1961, Chapter Two, p. 162-177

Likert comprehensively summarizes the research findings on the twenty-four most important properties and performance characteristics of the ideal highly effective group. This article then analyzes the roles of membership and leadership in groups.

Miles, Matthew B., *Learning to Work in Groups*, Columbia Teachers College Press, New York. 1959

We have found this book by Dr. Miles the best available guide for educational leaders on the dynamics of the small group. It is a well written guide to the training enterprise authoring the principles and theories of planning, designing, conducting and evaluating adult educational activities. In addition, there are over a hundred actual designs and exercises suggested to enhance the learning actions of groups.

Nylen, Donald; Mitchell, J. Robert; Start, Anthony, *Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training*, National Training Laboratories, Washington, D.C. 1965

These three NTL associates document their experience applying human relations training and adult educational methodology in their work in Africa. This book basically consists of a series of exercises, formats and simulations which have proved valuable in training managers, social workers and trainers in the field.

Rogers, Carl, *The Characteristics of a Helping Relationship*, On Becoming a Person, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Ma., 1961 pp. 39-57

Now a classic, this article clearly and convincingly explores the relationship between helpers and the helped--therapist-client; consultant-client; teacher-student; parent-child; etc. This article is a valuable sequel to the previous one cited linking as it does education, consultation and therapy in effective human interaction.

Rogers, Carl, *The Interpersonal Relationship in the Facilitation of Learning*, Lecture given at Harvard University, April 12, 1966

Dr. Rogers explores the dynamics of experiential learning and very lucidly argues that the same qualities that distinguish a humanly fulfilling relationship (and a therapeutic relationship) are also the requirements for establishing a climate for self-initiated (adult) learning.

Schein, Edgar H., *Process Consultation: Its Role in Organizational Development*, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Ma. 1969

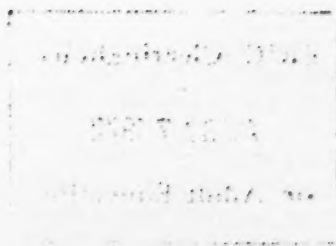
Process Consultation is the sixth volume of the Addison-Wesley series on Organizational Development. Dr. Schein's intentions in this book are twofold: 1) to present the reader with those ideas from social psychology which he has found most useful in his consultation experience; and 2) to give a personal and detailed statement of what he does when he consults for a system. This is an excellent book on the consultant's role and the relation between organization and training.

Schutz, William, *FIRO: A Three Dimensional Theory of Inter-Personal Behavior*, Holt Rinehart, 1958, later published as *The Interpersonal Underworld*, Science and Behavior Books, 1960

William Schutz here presents a careful analysis of the social psychological processes involved in small group development. This volume provides a perspective from which to understand the particular needs of groups and group members in all of our designing and conducting of adult training activities.

Thelen, Herbert A., *Dynamics of Groups at Work*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill. 1954

This advanced book by Dr. Thelen lucidly relates the application of group dynamics, T-group practice, and applied behavioral science to government, education, social reform and personal growth. It is a valuable book for the theorist and advanced practitioner of social science and adult training.



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- Argyris, Chris, *The Incompleteness of Social Psychological Theory*, American Psychologist, Vol. 24, No. 10, October 1969
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- Schein, Edgar H., *Organizational Psychology*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1965
- Van Enkevort, Ger, Dutch Center for Adult Education, Amsterdam, Netherlands, Unpublished paper delivered to the I.C.U.A. Conference, Montreal, 1970
- Von Bertalanffy, Ludwig, *General Systems Theory*, G. Brazziller, New York, 1968

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